COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION
AND
AGENCY RESPONSIBILITY

Ray Johns and
David F. De Marche

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Community Organization and Agency Responsibility

A study of the process of community organization for social welfare, and of the role of the direct-service organizations as responsible participants

RAY JOHNS
and
DAVID F. DeMARCHE

Foreword by Robert H. MacRae

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Foreword

THE RECURRING THEME of this thoughtful book is suggested by its illuminating title. The authors insist—and rightly so—that *all* agencies have a responsibility for community organization of social welfare services. The fruitful concept of community organization as a partnership process is carefully developed and emphasized throughout the book. Dr. Johns and Dr. DeMarche give no aid and comfort to those direct-service agency leaders who hold that the community organization job can be farmed out to the community chest and council. On the contrary, they note that effective health and welfare programs for American communities will not be built without the enthusiastic co-operation of community agencies. The reminder is directed equally at the leadership of chests and councils and member agencies.

Though the book deals largely with community organization in local communities, it is refreshing to note that the recent efforts toward extension of community organization to state and national levels receive thoughtful appraisal. There is encouragement and help for the attack on the perplexing problems of community organization for social welfare at these levels.

As the preceding comments suggest, this volume has an appeal beyond the professional community organization worker. The agency executive concerned about his role will find help here. The teacher will find a new tool for presentation of an elusive concept; the student, an illuminating text in this volume. Even the layman, frequently bewildered by "all this committee business," will find a text he can read without a glossary of terms, and gain insight in the process.

Those of us who work with communities in the building and strengthening of health and welfare services need constantly to gain new insight and understanding of the professional community organization worker. In particular, we shall find the chapters on guiding principles, on attitudes and skills enormously helpful. Whether neophyte or "old hand" we can read with profit.

It is interesting and, hopefully, significant that this book was written by an agency administrator and an educator. Lest some of my chest-council friends cavil at this, it should be said the authors bring a rich experience to the task. This is no armchair product of slippered ease. Dr. Johns and Dr. DeMarche have participated in numerous community surveys; they have been active workers in the community organization process in their own communities. Dr. Johns's able leadership in the U.S.O. of World War II demonstrated he was far from a novice in the art of community organization. Dr. DeMarche has had agency and interagency responsibilities. Both authors have had practical operating experience; both are educators as well.

This is a significant contribution to the all-too-limited literature of community organization. This is an important book.

ROBERT H. MACRAE
Executive Director
Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago

Authors' Preface

AMERICAN COMMUNITIES have faced unprecedented problems in recent decades. Individuals and groups have been under continuous tensions arising from years of depression and war. Increasing social concern for the welfare of people has developed. This concern has resulted in basic changes and unparalleled growth of community welfare services; and these, in turn, have stimulated efforts to improve the organization of such services in communities.

This book deals with ways of organizing a community's social welfare service system effectively. It emphasizes the common responsibility of all related organizations and individuals. It places the planning of social welfare services in a sound sociological framework. It is based on experience.

The entire book is the joint work of the authors. Together they developed the original plan of the book—its focus, its nature, and its content. Ideas and materials for each chapter were discussed. The research was a co-operative venture. Each author assumed responsibility for writing first drafts of particular chapters, but every chapter was reviewed and criticized by both, and then rewritten as necessary. Frequent conferences facilitated the collaborative process. Every effort has been made to produce an integrated work.

Appreciation is expressed to the authors and publishers whose works have been specifically cited and to numerous others who, over the years, have contributed to the thinking of the writers. Acknowledgment also is due the agency and interagency workers in nearly sixty different cities, who responded to questionnaires and who provided illustrative materials. The authors are indebted to Alfred G. Odermatt, William Nicholls, Sonia B. Greenspan, and Alice H. Squires for statistical assistance; to Faith N. Freeman, Lois S. Perkins, and Constance Pike for stenographic service on the manuscript; and to Springfield College and the Boston Y.M.C.A. for making their varied resources available. Dr. L. K. Hall, Director of Association Press, provided invaluable technical guidance.

Very special appreciation is expressed to Edythe F. DeMarche and Florence G. Johns for their constant belief in the value of the project and in the authors' capacity to meet its requirements, for their forbearance during the authors' necessary absorption in the work, and for their capable editorial assistance.

The authors have drawn on the experience of many people in various parts of the country. The book is based primarily, however, on the philosophy they have evolved from their own experience and study, and theirs is the sole responsibility for its contents. It has been written in the hope that it may lead to further study by other community service workers and that it may contribute, in some measure, to more effective community services.

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1

Community Organization—a Modern Necessity

EFFORTS TO PLAN and to guide the development of community life have increased in recent decades. City, county, state, and regional planning bodies now function in all parts of the country. They mobilize the efforts of many people to utilize natural and human resources and to create community designs for effective living.

Such planning bodies were originally concerned primarily with the physical development of communities. City planning commissions first focused on problems of land use, on changing and congested and deteriorating areas. Currently, city planing deals with all areas of community life. Planning for rural areas now encompasses every function needed by families—education, recreation, religion, health, and welfare.[1] State, regional, and national planning has expanded to include human resources as well as natural resources.

Community planning has become an inclusive process. It includes all aspects of living, such as those around which the Lynds organized their studies of contemporary American community culture: [2] making a living, making a home and raising children, training the young (education), using leisure, caring for the unable, getting information (the press, the radio, and the like), governing themselves, expressing religion. It is concerned with land and buildings, streets and highways, parks, business and industry, schools, churches, and legal and political structure. It includes all social institutions and community relationships. It deals with sociological, psychological, economic, and cultural forces.

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[1] For a more extended discussion of city and rural planning, see Arthur Hillman, *Community Organization and Planning* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. 38-85.

[2] Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, *Middletown* and *Middletown in Transition* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1929 and 1937).

Community organization for social welfare is a more limited concept. It focuses on those organizations and agencies which provide services directed toward maladjustment—economic need and dependency, family disorganization, and those problems connected with ill health—and those directed toward more effective living and more satisfactory relationships. This latter group includes programs of education for family living, occupational adjustment, promotion of health, constructive use of leisure time, social adjustment, individual growth, and guided group experience. Social welfare services, it must be emphasized, are not limited to services to people with problems, to neglected and economically disadvantaged segments of a community. They also include services for the well-being of all persons, regardless of their economic or social status. Community organization for social welfare focuses on community services not only in the problem areas of ill health, maladjustment, and dependency, but also in the areas of recreation and informal education for effective living.

Efforts to achieve more effective community organization of social welfare services have increased in recent years. Most communities now have councils or other bodies which seek to study needs, co-ordinate services, and reduce duplication, and to develop a balanced community service program. This process of community organization, of which planning is considered an essential part, includes services that are supported by voluntary contributions and fees of clients and members, and services that are tax-supported.

Community organization of social welfare services is an important aspect of broad community planning. It is affected by and related to such community planning. It is sufficiently complex, however, to merit special study of itself. This book seeks to provide such study.

The Increasing Importance of Community Organization of Social Welfare Services

The increasing necessity for more effective community organization of social welfare services grows out of a number of factors: (1) communities are becoming more complex; (2) the number of social welfare agencies has been increasing; (3) social welfare needs are constantly expanding; (4) higher standards for services and more effective administration of them are required; (5) the increasing specializations must be more effectively integrated; (6) hazards to unity and co-ordination are becoming more evident in many communities; (7) understanding of and skill in co-operative relationships are also becoming more and more necessary.

1. *Communities are becoming more complex.*

Change is constantly occurring. The 1950 United States Census showed that a great many communities increased in size. It also showed how much people move, from section to section in cities and from community to community. Even in communities which seem stable and even static, important changes are constantly occurring. Buildings become obsolete and neighborhoods deteriorate. People grow older, and influence and controls shift to different individuals and groups. As communities change and grow, the number of social groups and organizations tend to increase. Relationships multiply. Modern communication brings in forces from outside the community. Most of today's American communities are veritable networks of informal and formal organizations and relationships. Modern communities are complex, and living in them has become complicated for most people.

2. *The number of social welfare agencies has been increasing.*

No one can know exactly how many different social welfare organizations exist today. The *1951 Social Work Year Book,* in listing agencies whose activities appear to be within or significantly related to social work, includes 422 national voluntary agencies, 65 federal bureaus, divisions, and other agencies, and 22 international organizations—a total of 509 different agencies. In addition, some communities have local agencies which have no affiliations outside the community. The American tendency to create organizations to solve community problems, which Alexis De Tocqueville noted, is nowhere more evident than in the social welfare picture. Planning and co-ordination of the numerous and varied services for the welfare of people have become essential.

3. *Social welfare needs are constantly expanding.*

People have become more interdependent in communities today. They no longer can rely primarily on themselves and their immediate family and near neighbors for their welfare. Jobs are influenced by markets, by wars, and by other often distant and impersonal forces. Food and clothing, for many families, are provided through the efforts of many people they never see. Unemployment, loss of family income, injury and disease, family tensions are problems often influenced if not created by others, and on which those affected need help. Awareness of human need has increased. Poverty and family disorganization, as well as disease and crime, are now generally regarded as community social problems and, to a considerable degree, a community responsibility. Recreational and informal educational services for youth and for adults are now generally considered a community resource all people should have available to them. Increased social needs and the heightened sense of social responsibility for providing them, in many communities, have made community welfare planning increasingly necessary.

4. *Higher standards for services and more effective administration of them are required.*

Standards for social welfare services have been constantly rising in recent years. As social work has become more of a profession and as professional education has become more extensive, standards for personnel and for the work they do have risen. The vast sums of money involved in these services have also impelled higher standards for services and more effective administration. Though no accurate total figures for social welfare expenditures are available, reasonably accurate estimates can be made. The Twentieth Century Fund survey of America's needs and resources[3] estimated 1950 expenditures of voluntary social welfare and relief agencies to be 310 million dollars. It is generally known that voluntary agencies spend about 10 per cent of the total social welfare expenditures in most communities. It would seem, therefore, that the total public and voluntary agency expenditures for social welfare needs approximate 3 billion, 100 million dollars each year. Whatever the exact amount, it is a vast sum, and efficient administration and high standards for services which affect so basically the lives of hundreds of thousands of people are essential.

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[3] J. Frederick Dewhurst and Associates, *America's Needs and Resources* (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1947), p. 342.

5. *The increasing specializations must be more effectively integrated.*

Social case work, group work, child care, family services, corrective services, medical and psychiatric social work have become not only specializations in themselves, but many of them have developed subspecializations. Increased technical skills and higher standards of performance have contributed immeasurably to the welfare and growth of people. But specializations must supplement each other. People must not become "lost between specializations." Planning and co-ordination must fit specialized services together, in balance, and on a sound priority basis.

6. *Hazards to unity and co-ordination are becoming evident in many communities.*

A large proportion of the increasing number of local agencies are members of community chests and community welfare councils. Some agencies have continued their separate campaigns, and participate very little if at all in interagency planning and co-ordinating efforts. The latter group has increased in recent years, and misunderstandings and tensions between chests and their member agencies, and among member agencies, have increased in many communities. Increased costs of operation not matched by increased community fund giving or member-income, disillusionment with the results of efforts to plan and co-ordinate, unsatisfactory criteria for appraising services and community needs, lack of clarity about chest and agency responsibility and degree of freedom, eagerness to expand and improve services restrained by slow planning procedures and lack of funds—such factors and many others have caused unrest and lack of unity. A threatened breakdown of working relationships among agencies has developed in some communities. With modern community life and community services so interdependent, disunity and competition are unthinkable. More effective planning and community organization of services have become imperative.

7. *Understanding of and skill in co-operative relationships are also becoming more and more necessary.*

Co-operative relationships require more than a co-operative structure—more than "machinery for co-operation." More than common goals and purposes relating to service to people and growth of people are needed. Co-operation is essentially a set of relationships among people. Insight into human behavior and understanding of incentives and motivations are involved. Case workers and group workers have learned a good deal about how and why people relate themselves to each other in various activities. The needs individuals and organizations have for security, for recognition, for their own sense of identity, for the feeling of satisfaction from participation in socially useful, recognized accomplishments must be understood and utilized by participants and leaders in co-operative enterprises. Problems of relationships, especially among legally separate organizations, are complex; they require a high degree of skill. More effective organization of community services, based on greater insight and skill, is urgently needed.

The Significant Role of Participating Agencies in Co-operative Ventures

The operating agencies, which provide the direct services of child care, family services, health services and leisure-time services of recreation, informal education and guidance for youth, have an indispensable role to play in bringing community resources and needs into more effective balance. Community organization of social welfare services is "everybody's business." It is the responsibility of *all* agencies—of the board and staff members of direct-service agencies *and* of chests and councils. It is the responsibility of public and private agencies—of local and national agencies. No one has sole responsibility for it; no one can escape from it.

All the aspects of community social welfare planning—fact finding, program development, establishing and improving standards, co-ordinating and facilitating intergroup relationships, education, and public relations, enlisting adequate public support and participation[4] are responsibilities of the agencies which provide the direct services for and with people, as well as of the persons directly related to chests and councils.

Edward L. Ryerson, speaking at the 1950 Conference of Community Chests and Councils of America at Cincinnati, said that if we are "to build the best possible program of health and welfare for our American communities . . . we must never forget . . . the agencies . . . without whose active and enthusiastic co-operation no great gains can really be made or consolidated."[5]

Community organization of social welfare services must be based on the joint efforts of men and women in a community's different social welfare agencies. Edward D. Lynde, Executive Secretary of the Welfare Federation of Cleveland, wrote recently about the importance of ". . . an association of fully independent agencies which generously and voluntarily submerge the narrower interests for the broader good of the community." He continued, "Today many board members and many agency executives have come to think in terms of all the needs of all the people. . . . They are collectively evolving a basic science of community planning. . . ."[6]

New relationships are needed between direct-service or operating agencies and interagency organizations. Considerable restlessness among workers in both types of agencies can be discerned—in chests and councils and in operating agencies. A good deal of skepticism has developed, in many parts of the country, about community planning and community organization efforts: skepticism about whether enough or fast enough progress is being made in "balancing needs and services"; skepticism about the productiveness of the time-consuming but often seemingly aimless efforts in which workers participate. Concern is expressed by some chest and council workers about

[4] Arthur Dunham, "The Job of the Community Organization Worker," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1948), p. 163.

[5] Edward L. Ryerson, "Freedom Within Federation," *The United Way of Planning and Financing Health and Welfare Services* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., 1950), p. 8.

[6] Edward D. Lynde, "Partnership in Community Planning," *Community* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc.), September, 1950, p. 8.

what seems to be an increase of "agency-mindedness." Concern is similarly expressed by operating agency workers of growing evidences of "institutionalism" on the part of some interagency workers. Both interagency organizations and direct-service agencies have a vital role in achieving well-balanced, effective community welfare services.

A Preview of Content

The special focus of this book is on the participation of all agencies in the planning and organization of community social welfare services.

This first chapter provides an orientation to the general problem with which the book deals. The first section then presents a brief analysis of the nature of community life and the setting in which community organization for social welfare must be effected, and suggestions are made about how a particular community can be understood. The range of social welfare services which must be co-ordinated is described, and the growth and development of public agency services are noted. The nature and scope of the community organization process are then examined, and structure for community organization of social welfare—councils, chests, and state and national planning and financing organizations—is next considered. Steps and methods in the community organization process are analyzed. Patterns of local interagency relationships and local-national relationships are examined. A more detailed analysis of local relationships, based on a special study involving workers in a variety of agencies in nearly sixty different communities, is studied. Some of the barriers to effective interagency relationships are analyzed. Attitudes, skills, and training needed for these increasingly important relationships, and some guiding principles are recognized. Finally, some frontier areas in community organization are identified.

* * *

Community welfare services, like all individual and community relationships, have become more and more interdependent. The welfare and growth of people in hundreds of American communities require that such important services and relationships be managed effectively. Community organization for social welfare has become a modern necessity.

2

The Nature of Communities

IF COMMUNITY organization for social welfare is to be understood, it is necessary that communities be understood. The social problems with which social work deals become evident in communities. Some of them grow out of community conditions. It is important, therefore, to understand what is meant by a community and to note the different ways in which the term is used—to understand the various concepts of "community"—to understand the ways in which communities are alike and the ways in which they differ—to understand the nature of community life.

What Constitutes a Community

Despite the fact that the concept of "community" has been handed down from earliest historical times and that students of social life have been using the term in innumerable studies of communities, there is no final agreement as to what a community is.

"The term 'community,' like other concepts taken from common-sense usage, has been used with an abandon reminiscent of poetic license."[1] Joanna C. Colcord has suggested that it can be used to designate areas served by political subdivisions of government, such as townships, boroughs, cities, or counties.[2] It has also been used to refer to stable, autonomous, self-sufficient units, such as colonies of settlers, hunters, primitive tribes. It has been used, too, in reference to small, temporary social units, such as a trailer camp or a ship. The term has been used to denote highly specialized areas of large urban centers and to designate large metropolises. The nation and the world are sometimes called communities. "Community" has been defined by Newstetter in its psychological sense: ". . . two or more groups in a relationship of psychic interaction, whose relationships with each other may be abstracted and distinguished from all others (groups) so that they may be thought of as an entity.[3] "Community" has also been used to refer to people who live in different places but who have ideas or interests in common. Hence the expressions, "community of ideas" and "community of interests." For example, people who believe in world federation are sometimes said to share a community of interests.

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[1] Louis Wirth, "The Scope and Problems of the Community," *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XXVII, May, 1933, p. 61.

[2] Joanna C. Colcord, *Your Community: Its Provisions for Health, Education, Safety and Welfare* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947), p. 13.

What are the factors which constitute a community? Steiner says that ". . . the essential elements of a community are groups of people living in a locality so situated that they inevitably organize themselves in behalf of their major interests." [4] He thus emphasizes three factors: groups of people, locality, major interests. MacIver selects as a distinguishing characteristic the fact that resources are so organized that ". . . one's life *may* be lived wholly within it, that all one's social relationships *may* be found within it." [5] Ideas held in common with others in a geographically defined area are important elements in a rural community, according to Taylor: "The operational and realistic concept of a rural community as a societal or cultural object concerns itself with man's . . . ideas and attitudes which he holds more or less in common with others . . . all of them exist in a geographically defined area. . . ." [6]

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[3] Wilbur I. Newstetter, "Teaching Community Organization in Schools of Social Work," paper presented at 1941 National Conference of Social Work, published in Wayne McMillen, *Community Organization for Social Welfare* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), p. 59.

[4] J. F. Steiner, *Community Organization* (New York-London: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1930), p. 161.

[5] R. M. MacIver, *Society: A Textbook of Sociology* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1937), p. 6.

[6] Carl C. Taylor, "Techniques of Community Study and Analysis as Applied to Modern Civilized Societies," in Ralph Linton, Editor, *The Science of Man in the World Crisis* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1945), pp. 435-436.

The word "community" has presented difficulties to students of community organization of social welfare services. The committee appointed to draft the report of discussion groups in six cities studying the nature, objectives, and methods of community organization considered changing the term "community organization" to some term which would omit "community" in order to avoid the difficulties encountered in defining it.

"The word 'community' presented difficulties," they reported. "To many of us it inevitably suggests only local activities. Further, when coupled with 'organization' it seems to suggest that some entire 'community' is being 'organized.' We have indicated our agreement that, first of all, we were seeking to identify a process, and our further agreement that process is practiced on local, state and federal levels, and between such levels. Many of us were, therefore, persuaded that we should seek also for a term that would clearly refer to the process alone, without including a word that introduced a confusing and perhaps misleading geographical limitation."[7]

It seems apparent, from the variety of uses of the term "community" in social welfare circles, that no single definition of the term will serve for all occasions. Arlien Johnson has suggested that "the application of the sociological concept of process means that community organization in social work is concerned with ongoing, dynamic, changing manifestations of interaction. . . . The process of community organization, it becomes clear, may be carried on *in a variety of settings.* If community organization in social work is a process, as are case work and group work, then we may conclude that its content is the interaction of people *in defined situations* where a professional service is offered by a social worker."[8]

"Community" may be used, then, as a convenient term to refer to a group of people gathered together in any geographical area, large or small, who have organized to meet their common interests. From a purely practical point of view, the community is any area where people have common interests in the social welfare field and where the community organization process is being attempted. It may be a small community, a section of a city, an entire city, a metropolitan area, a county, a state, or a nation. In many instances, the traditional political units are the areas selected for community organization efforts. The area is to be defined and redefined in the light of the projects to be undertaken.

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[7] Robert P. Lane, "The Field of Community Organization," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1939), pp. 507-508.

[8] Arlien Johnson, "Community Organization in Social Work," in *Social Work Year Book, 1945,* Russell H. Kurtz, Editor (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1945), p. 93.

Types of Communities

Communities have been classified in a number of ways. They have been classified according to population, according to economic bases, and from the standpoint of ecology.

A classification according to population has been presented by Karlin:[9]

1. Hamlet	less than 1,000 in population
2. Village	less than 2,500 in population
3. Town	2,500 to 25,000 in population
4. City	25,000 to 100,000 in population
5. Large City	100,000 to 1,000,000 in population
6. Metropolis	over a million in population

Communities have been classified according to their economic base, as follows:

1. *Manufacturing*
   Employment in manufacturing is 50 per cent or more of aggregate employment in manufacture, trade, and service establishments; and employment in retail trade, less than 30 per cent.
2. *Industrial*
   The dominance of manufacturing is balanced by substantial retail trade, with a manufacturing ratio of more than 50 per cent, and a retail trade ratio of more than 30 per cent.
3. *Wholesale*
   The number employed in wholesale trade is at least 25 per cent of aggregate employment.

[9] J. Karlin, *Chicago Backgrounds of Education* (Chicago: Workman's Book House, 1940), p. 448.

4. *Retail*
   The number employed in retail trade is greater than employment in any other category; and employment in manufacturing, less than 20 per cent.
5. *Diversified*
   One type is a balanced city in which manufacturing is predominant and retail trade is second in importance; manufacturing is less than 50 per cent. The other type is a balanced city with retail trade predominant and employment in manufacturing is more than 20 per cent, but less than 50 per cent.
6. *Dormitory*
   Includes both the suburbs which have an employment-residence ratio of less than 40 per cent and a few independent cities (not in metropolitan districts) which have an employment-residence ratio of less than 40 per cent.
7. *Education Centers*
   If total college enrollments should exceed 20 per cent of its total population, the city is classed as an education center (e.g., Ames, Iowa; Ann Arbor, Mich.; Columbia, Mo.).
8. *Government Center*
   If 15 per cent or more of the labor force resident in an independent or central city is employed in governmental service.
9. *Mining Town*
   If 15 per cent or more of those in its resident labor force report mining as an occupation.
10. *Transportation Center*
    If more than one fourth of the resident labor is employed in transportation and related functions (e.g., Council Bluffs, Iowa).
11. *Amusement or Health Resorts*
    In which manufacturing is less than 15 per cent, and more than 10 per cent of the residents have occupations classified in the following industry groups—eating and drinking places, hotels and lodging places, and amusement,

recreation, and related services (e.g., Atlantic City, N.J.).[10]

McKenzie[11] has classified communities ecologically into four general types:

1. *The primary service community*
   Examples are the agricultural town, mining, lumbering, and fishing communities. This type of community provides the raw materials such as minerals, lumber, and agricultural products and constitutes the first step in the distributive process of the outgoing commodity. In general, these communities are small.
2. *The distributing community*
   This type is usually called a commercial community. It is a distribution center for the materials it receives from the primary communities. It also distributes to the primary service communities the products for final consumption. The size of the community depends upon the advantages of its location and the size of its distribution area. It may be a small town in the middle of an agricultural plain or a large railroad center or an important port city.
3. *The industrial community*
   Industry is dominant over other forms of service in this type of community. There are two subtypes of industrial communities: those with diversified and multiple industries and those dominated by one or two highly developed industries organized on a national or world distribution of its products.
4. *Special types of communities*
   Examples of such communities include educational centers, resort towns, and political centers. They lack a specific economic base and may serve no particular function in the production or distribution of commodities. These communities are more subject to the ups and downs of human life than are the communities with more basic

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[10] Grace Kneedler Ohlson, "Economic Classification of Cities," *The Municipal Year Book, 1948* (Chicago: The International City Managers' Association), pp. 31-39.

[11] R. D. McKenzie, "The Ecological Approach to the Study of the Human Community," in Robert E. Park, *The City* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), pp. 66-68.

functions. These centers are not likely to become very large.

It is to be noted throughout the discussion of this ecological classification that communities seldom serve only one economic function. Here they have been classified by their predominant function. In the course of time, communities may change their primary function. A single-industry town, for example, may change its economic base to diversified and multiple industries.

Similarities and Differences in Communities

Communities have similarities and differences in addition to those implicit in the classifications above. Their characteristics are important for planning and organizing social welfare services.

All communities—trading centers, factory towns, transportation centers, mining towns, resort communities, satellite cities—all have people living in them. They all have physical facilities —houses, streets, stores, schools, and church buildings. They all have an ongoing life. They have some sort of structure—government, business, and social life.

Communities differ, too. They differ in size. They differ in their physical patterns. Some are compact; some are spread out over extensive areas. Some are built on flat terrain; some are located on hills and in valleys. They differ in their economic base. Some communities are composed largely of industrial workers; some are the residences of business and professional leaders. Some communities have an adequate, stable economic foundation. Some depend primarily on seasonal occupations and have periods of prosperity and periods of depression. They differ in their living standards, their housing, their education, their medical care, their social welfare services.

Communities also differ in the composition of their population. Some communities are composed largely of old American stock. Some have predominant groups of Irish, or Italian, or Scandinavian, or other nationality or racial groups. Communities vary in their proportion of different religious groups. They differ in their proportions of young children, of young men or young women, or old people. Communities differ in their community institutions. Some have a large number of private and parochial schools, as well as public schools. Some have more organizations of college and university people, both social and cultural groups. The social institutions which influence public opinion—the newspapers, radio, and television, the sermons and addresses made before community groups—vary distinctly in different communities. Community attitudes differ greatly in different communities in different sections of a country.

Modern communication and transportation—radio, television, motion pictures, syndicated newspaper columns, automobiles—have profoundly influenced all communities and made them more alike. But differences still exist and influence life in each community. They also are factors which must be taken into account in social welfare planning and organization.

The Nature of Community Life

The nature of community life must be understood if the planning and organization of social welfare services is to be effective. Every community is complicated. Every community is different from every other community, but certain fundamental factors are present in every community in varying degrees. Every community has (1) a set of dominant mores and community loyalties, (2) a "prestige" structure, (3) an association system, (4) a community service system.

1. *A Set of Dominant Mores and Community Loyalties*

Every community has its accustomed ways of doing things. Sumner defined mores as "ways of doing things in a society to satisfy human needs and desires, together with the faiths, notions, codes and standards of well-being which inhere in these ways. . . ."[12] They are the "regulators of behavior," the instruments of control, expressing the group standards, the group sense of what is fitting and right. They represent the "omnipresent influence toward conformity, molding and restraining the tendencies of the individual."[13] Mores are important influences in social life. They "mete out the strong medicine of praise or blame, approval to those who follow them, disapproval to those who seek to defy them."[14] Mores are more compulsive, more integrated in rural than in urban communities. As life has become more impersonal in all types of communities, mores are less influential. They are still, however, in many communities at least, potent influences on behavior.

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[12] William Graham Sumner, *Folkways* (Boston: Ginn and Co., 1906), p. 59.

[13] *Ibid.*

Community loyalties also need to be understood and taken into account. It is important, as Steiner has pointed out, that "a community should be characterized by faith in its destiny and by loyal devotion to its various enterprises. . . . Without this pride in local institutions and this concerted effort to accomplish greater things, a community would deteriorate."[15] Loyalties based on provincialism, on the other hand, can obstruct needed change.

2. A "Prestige" Structure

Warner and Lunt,[16] in the noted Yankee City studies, decided that the communities they analyzed had six class-structure levels—upper upper, lower upper, upper middle, lower middle, upper lower, and lower lower. Hollingshead,[17] in his study of *Elmstown's Youth,* stated that Elmtowners identified five different prestige classes, assigned different prestige to the various strata, recognized themselves and others as members of certain classes, mentioned criteria for placing persons in each class, and associated types of behavior with memberships in a particular social class. Warner and Lunt define class as ". . . two or more orders of people who are believed to be, and are accordingly ranked by the members of the community, in socially superior and socially inferior positions. . . . A class society distributes rights and privileges, duties and obligations unequally among its inferior and superior grades. . . ."[18] Students of class structure assert that though children are born into the same status as their parents, and though members of a class tend to marry within their own social group, marriage "up and down" does occur. They recognize a considerable degree of social mobility. Some social psychologists and sociologists believe that studies of social stratification have tended to overemphasize the importance of class structure. The fact of stratification, in varying degrees in different communities, however, is important. Communities do develop "hierarchies of leadership," and they must be taken into account in all community enterprises.

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[14] *Ibid.*

[15] J. F. Steiner, *Community Organization* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1930), p. 103.

[16] W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941).

[17] A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949).

[18] Warner and Lunt, *op. cit.*, p. 82.

3. *An Association System*

All communities have a large number of formally and informally organized groups—clubs, societies, organizations of all kinds. The structure of these groups, which comprise a community's association system, is likely to follow whatever lines of stratification exist there.

4. *A Community Service System*

Every community has a network of agencies for doing things. Many of them are governmental agencies, financed by tax funds. A great many are voluntary organizations, supported by membership dues or by the voluntary contributions of citizens who believe in them or who are induced to support them. Some of them are special interest groups. Hospitals, churches, social welfare agencies are parts of a community's service system. The direction they take, and their efficiency, depend to a large degree, on the community's mores and loyalties, and on its prestige structure and its association system.

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An understanding of the nature of community life, of the similarities and differences among communities, and of the different types of communities are a prerequisite to an understanding of the community organization process. The next chapter will consider ways of understanding a community.

3

Understanding a Community

A COMMUNITY organization worker must know the community in which he plans to operate if he is to participate intelligently in the community organization process. It is sometimes forgotten, however, that workers in the direct-service agencies (and other community leaders) concerned in the welfare of the community must also have a ready knowledge of basic community facts.

What are some of these basic facts? What must workers understand about the community?

Community Structure

Many aspects of the community are visible and tangible. The community occupies a territorial area. It has *structure,* a physical configuration. The structural pattern of communities, in general, represents an adjustment to the topographical features and to the varied requirements of the inhabitants. In its simplest form, community structure follows the pattern of two intersecting routes of travel. The trade center, with its stores and other buildings designed to meet communal needs, is at the point of intersection of the two routes. The homes of the people cluster around the trade center along the main roads. As the distance from the center increases, they become scattered. With a growing population and the tendency of the people to live near the center, side streets are laid out. The expanding business section encroaches upon the adjacent residences and forces the owners to abandon what had been the most desirable residential section of a small community.[1] Thus the community grows by expansion and succession.

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[1] Jesse F. Steiner, *Community Organization* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1925), pp. 30-31.

The pattern of physical growth of a community is determined by its topography. Natural barriers such as rivers, lakes, sea, or hills, impose limitations and determine the broad outlines of the community's growth. Highways and main arteries, railroads and railroad yards, bridges, cemeteries, parks and other main physical structures, along with the physical configuration, influence internal structure—lines of transportation and communication, layout of streets, buildings. These physical characteristics have their influence on communal life and problems. The structure affects the distribution of population, the degree of contact among the groups of various areas within the community. It affects rental and land values and the distribution of institutions. Transportation facilities profoundly influence the extent and direction of population movements and the degree of isolation from social contacts with other communities.

Community History

The history of the community—when and under what circumstances it came into existence, the predominant religious, national, and racial stock of its first settlers—has an important bearing upon its later development, its institutions, and its general way of looking at things. A knowledge of the historical background, the periods of change, and the rate of change in population, economic, political, and social life, are helpful in understanding the community in its present stage of development.

Demographic Characteristics

The distributions of population on the basis of age, sex, nationality, race, and occupation, are important in their relationship to the organization of community life. The facts relative to population can be "correlated with other social data such as home ownership, stability or migration, health, delinquency and crime rates, insanity rates, voting, political and religious affiliation, and other characteristics of population groups." [2]

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[2] Louis Wirth, "The Scope and Problems of the Community," *Publications of the American Sociological Society,* XXVII (May 1933), pp. 68-69.

Population mobility is related to community life. A community is in process of constant change. "Mobility is a measure of this rate of change; it is represented in change of residence, change of employment, or change of location of any utility or service." [3] A high rate of mobility is generally associated with instability of community life, of its social institutions, and of the mores of the group. A community characterized by a high degree of intimacy, solidarity, and efficient local opinion, may become, because of a high rate of mobility, an area devoid of mutual interests and with an increasing number of social problems.[4]

"In addition to a demographic study of an area, we are concerned with the population as a constellation of social and cultural groupings that have unique standards of living, unique social heritages, and a unique organization of life." [5] The economic and social status, the standards of living, the occupational pursuits, folkways, customs, mores, social and religious organizations, social control, conflicts, and accommodation of these groups are important to our understanding of their interrelationships as they affect the life of the community.[6]

Associations and Institutions

To understand a community one must also know its associations and institutions. MacIver states that "institutions are forms of order established within social life by some common will." He distinguishes them from associations by saying: "An association is a body of social beings organized for the pursuit of some common interest or interests. It stands in contrast to a community. A community is any area of common life; an association is a definite organization pursuing some specific interest or pursuing general interests in some specific way." [7]

An institution is a complex pattern of group behavior. People cannot "belong" to an *institution;* they can "belong" to an association—a church, a movement, a labor union. The institutions are the form, the means. Communities have many institutions such as courts, settlements, hospitals, universities, newspapers, political parties, neighborhood organizations, and social welfare agencies. "The use, development, integration, and co-ordination of all these institutions depend largely on the consciousness of common objectives, or mutual confidence, and on this formulation of a philosophy of social organization and social welfare." [8]

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[3] Ernest W. Burgess, Editor, *The Urban Community* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926), pp. 169-170.

[4] Pauline V. Young, *Scientific Social Surveys and Research* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), p. 501. Used by permission.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 502-503.

[6] *Ibid.*

[7] R. M. MacIver, *Community—A Sociological Study* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1917), pp. 150-151. Used by permission.

Social Problems and Social Disorganization

Society is in a constant state of flux; it is dynamic. When new cultural traits are introduced into any given society, social change takes place. "As the culture base increases in size and complexity by the addition of new traits, the relative stability of the society is seriously threatened. Living in a complex society requires more and more adaptability on the part of individuals and institutions." [9] It is when the material and nonmaterial elements of culture tend to become further and further out of adjustment that trouble arises. This failure of the related aspects of a culture complex to develop at the same rate gives rise to the phenomenon of cultural lag. The relative rigidity in the social controls which have been established constitutes one of the chief difficulties in adjusting to a changing society.[10] These controls are effected through the *folkways, mores, laws,* and *institutions* of the group.

Folkways are habitual forms of behavior handed down from one generation to the next and thus they come to possess social value. The mores are "folkways with a philosophy of social welfare attached," [11] and therefore are of greater importance. Mores must be obeyed if the individual is to retain status in his group. Laws are mores armed with authority. Institutions "represent values which have become incorporated into a social framework and hence constitute important units in the total structure of a dynamic society."[12]

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[8] Young, *op. cit.*, p. 509.

[9] Mabel A. Elliott and Francis E. Merrill, *Social Disorganization* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941), p. 11.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 12.

[11] William Graham Sumner, *Folkways* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1906), pp. 2-30.

A knowledge of the community is therefore not complete without an understanding of the functions and effect of these social controls. It is important to take cognizance of the types of behavior the community attempts to control, the importance of various institutions as effective means of social control, the nature, role, and instruments of public opinion.

"The social problems of a community may arise out of conflicting interests, attitudes, and values of the social groups, of its members, of its institutions, or of its leader."[13]

Community Studies

The earliest approach to the study of social disorganization is that of the social problems. The earliest writings were a miscellany of problems from the various fields of economics, medicine, psychology, history, politics, and sociology, and of reform programs.

This approach was little concerned with an understanding of the problem. It assumed that the nature of the problem was readily apparent and that what was needed was concerted action to provide a remedy.

The beginning of scientific social studies can be traced back to the efforts of John Howard, Frederic LePlay, and Charles Booth in England and France. The most noted early study of social problems in America is the Pittsburgh Survey, a scientific study of the effects of urbanization and industrialization. It was started in 1909 and published in 1914.[14] In this country as well as in England the scientific approach was preceded by unscientific but realistic investigations of social conditions. A good example of this type of investigation is the account of tenement conditions in New York in Jacob Riis's *How the Other Half Lives* (1890).

One difficulty facing the student of community organization has been the confusion arising around the use of the terms

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[12] Elliott and Merrill, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

[13] Young, *op. cit.*, p. 505.

[14] Space does not permit an elaboration of this subject. For an excellent discussion of the development of scientific social studies see Pauline V. Young, *op. cit.*, Ch. I.

"social survey" and "social research." Because it is necessary to make a distinction between the two types of social study, the following definitions are offered.

A social survey is a study of current conditions of a social pathological nature, which has definite social implications and social significance and definite geographic limits. Its purpose is the formulation of a constructive program of social reform and amelioration of these conditions.[15]

On the other hand, social research is concerned with discovering new facts or verifying old facts, and analyzing the sequences, interrelationships, causal explanations, and the natural laws which govern them, with the object of understanding the social laws of human behavior and of the social world.[16]

An excellent illustration of social research is the study of *Middletown* or *Middletown in Transition,* by Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd. They were not concerned with practical and immediate social planning, nor with ameliorative and therapeutic measures; nor were they concerned with social reform and the utilization of local social resources.

Though the person interested in community organization needs to recognize that the social surveyor and the social researcher are both concerned with social life and social welfare and that their aims are thus interrelated, he is more immediately concerned with the social survey and with its efforts to study the conditions and needs of a community and to present a remedial program for social advance.

Methods of Community Study

Much has been written about various methods used in the study of social life and its problems. The purpose here will be to present in as realistic a fashion as possible the steps to be taken in the study of a community and the methods and techniques used. Earlier in this chapter it was indicated that the student interested in community organization should become familar with the structure, history, demographic characteristics, and ecology of the community if he was to understand its social problems and social disorganization.

How does one proceed to secure these facts? In the first place, the student frequently may assume that considerable data already exist on the matter he wishes to study. It is fairly safe to assume that in a study of a community or some phase of it, such as the study of some particular agency or group of agencies, some previous studies have been conducted by others. Although one may not wish to use their findings or build upon these studies, it is still important to know what ground has been covered before trying to cover it anew. Too often a student of the community in a burst of enthusiasm is likely to start off on a study without investigating the possibility of the existence of previous studies. In order to avoid duplication of effort and possible loss of time and energy, it is important to locate and refer to previous efforts and, if found useful, to utilize the results of such studies.

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[15] Young, *op. cit.,* p. 20.

[16] *Ibid.,* p. 85.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

There are two general sources of information, namely, *documentary sources* and *personal or direct sources.* The latter consist of persons who have knowledge about or have been in contact with and witnessed the changing social conditions. These persons—old residents, community leaders, teachers, ministers, social workers, public officials, and others—can describe what is now taking place, but also what has gone before.

The *documentary sources* are those contained in manuscripts, published or unpublished documents, letters, diaries, reports, statistics, etc. Documentary sources are generally divided into *primary* sources and *secondary* sources. *Primary* sources provide data gathered at first hand, and the responsibility for their compilation and publishing remains under the same authority that gathered them. *Secondary* sources provide data compiled or transcribed from original sources. The authority issuing these data is different from that which controlled the collection of the data at first hand.[17]

Because of the possibility of errors in transcribing quantitative data from original sources and because of the possibility of assembling data from various sources which are not truly comparable, care must be taken to distinguish between primary and secondary sources.

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[17] Young, *op. cit.*, p. 101.

Suggestive rather than exhaustive lists of official and unofficial documents and statistics are presented below. These are the more common reports, documents, and statistics published by local, state, and federal official bodies and by unofficial sources:

Official Data

1. The state and federal census
2. Reports of bureaus of vital statistics
3. Reports of state, county, and municipal health departments
4. Reports of police departments, prisons, jails, courts, probation departments, and reform schools
5. Reports of state and federal departments of labor, state boards and commissions, state employment bureaus
6. Reports of boards of education and of attendance departments
7. Reports of church federations
8. Reports of public welfare agencies
9. Reports of departments of recreation
10. Reports of state and federal immigration and housing commissions
11. Reports of state and federal boards of equalization
12. Reports of state and federal emergency relief administrations
13. Reports of state and federal public works administrations
14. Reports of bureaus of commerce
15. Legislative sources
    a. Statutes of the Federal Government
    b. General state laws
    c. Special state laws
    d. County charters
    e. County ordinances
    f. City charters
    g. City council ordinances
    h. Ordinances of boards of aldermen
    i. Police department rules and regulations
    j. Health board rules and regulations

Unofficial Data may be found in the following sources that are usually easily accessible:

1. Reports of councils of social agencies
2. Reports of private social welfare agencies
3. Reports of trade and labor unions
4. Reports of chambers of commerce
5. Reports of industrial establishments
6. Reports of youth-serving agencies
7. Reports of private employment bureaus
8. Reports of foundations, private commissions, and investigating agencies
9. Accounts in newspapers in current numbers, and in back files, and clues as to public opinion relative to the events under study.[18]

Though the data from the sources above may be secured directly from the bodies responsible for their compilation, much may be reposing in the local public or university libraries. Thus, it is apparent that a knowledge of methods of using a library and its sources is highly important to the researcher. In order to unearth the potential documentary evidence, the research worker should be familiar with the use of encyclopedias, book indexes, card catalogs, indexes to periodicals, books, and newspapers.

The research worker should develop a bibliography as soon as the process of consulting available sources is begun. It is suggested that each reference, preferably annotated, appear on a separate card or sheet with the last name of the author first, his given name or initials following, and then the title of the reference, publisher's name, and date of publication. Another instrument of importance to the scientific worker is systematic note taking throughout the process of the study, from beginning to end. There appears to be general agreement that notes should be made on separate sheets or cards of uniform size and form. Also that only one idea, or fact, or hypothesis, be included on a sheet or card. This system permits rearrangement of the notes to fit any particular classification found desirable as the study progresses.

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[18] Young, *op. cit.*, pp. 162-163.

FIELD OBSERVATION

The discussion so far under the general heading of Methods of Community Study has been concerned with securing data from existing sources, both direct and documentary. Scientific field observation is needed to supplement the collection of source data.

Observation may be used in the study of collective behavior and complex social situations, or in the study of separate units comprising a totality.[19]

There are both *noncontrolled* and *controlled* methods of observation. In noncontrolled observation the observer is unaided by instruments and does not attempt to check for accuracy of the life situations observed.

In *controlled* observation, on the other hand, the observer centers his attention on certain particular phases of a social situation and not on others. Accuracy may be aided by the use of mechanical tests or aids and by standardized conditions or units of observation. In fact, the degree of control will depend to a large extent upon the instrument used. Schedules, questionnaires, sociometric scales, maps, and detailed notes, are examples of such instruments.

Observation may be either *participant* or *nonparticipant.* In participant observation an "outsider" temporarily becomes an "insider," though at times it may be observation by an "insider" who is trained to view social situations as an "outsider." As a research technique it has the advantage of providing the observer with an understanding of the inner nature of social situations, and yet at the same time viewing them objectively and scientifically.[20] Participant observation enables the observer to understand the "why" of what is happening as well as to see "what" is happening. On the other hand, the nonparticipant observer looks on, but does not take part. He makes his presence as inconspicuous as possible.

Aids in Controlled Observation

The *schedule* usually is a list of items to which the field investigator seeks to secure answers. Most frequently the aim of the schedule is to secure data that can be treated statistically. The data are definite, concrete, quantitative, and objective.

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[19] *Ibid.*, p. 199.

[20] E. S. Bogardus, *Introduction to Social Research* (Los Angeles: Suttonhouse, 1936), pp. 65-70.

The *questionnaire* also seeks to collect data which can be treated statistically. It attempts to secure answers to specific questions. Whereas the schedule is filled out by the investigator, the questionnaire is filled out by the person from whom information is being sought. Because of this fact, the questionnaire must be simple and more fully worded. Each question must be so phrased that only one meaning is possible.[21]

Maps constitute an important tool in social research. In addition to their use in the graphic portrayal of facts, they may serve to locate problems, analyze data, and discover hidden facts and relationships. There are three fundamental types: (1) the base map, (2) the spot map, and (3) the cross-hatched map. All are capable of wide variations and adaptations for special purposes. [22]

Base Maps. Perhaps the most useful of the several types is the base map. It portrays the underlying facts of the physical and social environment and provides an important background for primary data which are superimposed upon it. In this way it facilitates the analysis of the spatial patterning of social phenomena. In constructing such a map, careful selection is made of the features of the physical and man-made environment which are of fundamental importance in conditioning the spatial distribution of social phenomena. Factors of the physical environment which often are included are rivers, lakes, hills, valleys, and other topographical characteristics. Aspects of the man-made environment which possess ecological significance are main traffic arteries, bridges, canals, railroads and railroad yards, industrial and commercial areas, cemeteries, and parks. These features are indicated on the base map by some suitable technique, such as cross-hatching or coloring.

Spot maps are commonly used to portray the geographic location or frequency of social phenomena. There are a number of types of such "spot" maps, using dots, discs, spheres, triangles, squares, or other symbols to portray the desired facts.

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[21] For an excellent discussion on the construction of schedules and questionnaires, see Young, *op. cit.*, pp. 220-242.

[22] The following material on maps is adapted largely from Calvin F. Schmid in Young, *ibid.*, p. 344, pp. 412-428.

An important variation of the spot map is the multiposition map which shows direction of movement. For example, C. F. Schmid[23] presents a map on sexual delinquency on which the circles indicate the residence of the girls; the squares, the residence of the male partners; and the crosses, the places of delinquency. Dotted lines connect the residence of the girl with that of her male partner, and full lines connect the residence of each with the place of delinquency.

The *cross-hatched* or *shaded map* is perhaps the best technique for portraying rates and ratios. In this type of map the various rates or ratios for various geographical units are grouped into a small number of classes—usually not less than four, or more than eight—each represented by an appropriate type of shading.

"The fundamental principle underlying the cross-hatching technique is to arrange the density of the lines in such a way as to give an optical effect from light to dark as to intensity of tone or pattern."[24] The shadings should be sufficiently different to be easily identified from a legend on the chart. The usual procedure is to assign the smallest values to the light hatching or stippling, while the highest values are represented by full black, and the hatchings for the intervening values are graduated accordingly.

The *sociometric scale* is considered an instrument of precision in the social sciences in the same sense that a thermometer is, in the medical field. Such a scale, if standardized, is intended to produce similar results if used by two or more persons who observe the same social factors.

These sociometric scales were developed because of a felt need upon the part of social scientists for more precise measuring instruments of social phenomena. There are two general types: (1) those concerned with certain aspects of the cultural and social environment and (2) those used to measure behavior, characteristics, and organization of personality. Scales for studying housing conditions, health conditions, and socioeconomic status are illustrations of the first type. Attitude scales, psychoneurotic inventories, and social participation scales are characteristic of the second type.

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[23] See Young, *ibid.*, p. 425.

[24] *Ibid.*, p. 424.

THE HISTORICAL METHOD

Social scientists have recognized that a look at social phenomena at any given time is not sufficient to provide either accuracy or perspective. Every social phenomenon has a history, and the present situation may be understood only in the light of its history. The conflicts and problems of today have their roots in the past. To understand a current problem it may be necessary to understand its antecedent history.

THE ECOLOGICAL METHOD

An important method in social studies is the ecological approach, with its emphasis upon the pattern of distribution of people and their institutions within the community, as determined by topography, means of transportation and communication, land values, and other social and economic factors.

Natural Areas

Certain basic ecological concepts should be understood by the student of the community. One of the more important for research in human ecology is the concept of the *natural area.* These areas are unplanned, the result of city growth. The processes of competition and selection break up every city into a myriad of such areas. "Railroad and industrial belts, park and boulevard systems, rivers and rises of land acting as barriers to movements of population tend to fix the boundaries of these natural areas."[25] Cultural characteristics as well as physical characteristics tend to define the natural area. People gravitate not only to certain areas because they can compete more efficiently, but also to areas in which live people of similar culture, race, opinion, and economic status. Thus these areas become "relatively homogeneous, with a cultural complexion that sets them off from other natural areas produced by similar competitive and selective processes."[26]

Natural areas usually differ from administrative areas. The latter, such as the ward, the school district, the police precinct, and the health district, break up the city into units of administrative convenience. On the other hand, the natural area "is a unit in the physical structure of the city, typified by a physical individuality and the characteristic attitudes, sentiments, and interests of the people segregated within it."[27] Rarely do administrative areas and natural areas coincide. As a rule the administrative lines cut across natural area boundaries, without regard to their existence.

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[25] Harvey W. Zorbaugh, "The Natural Areas of the Cities," *The Urban Community,* Ernest W. Burgess, Editor (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926), p. 222.

[26] Noel P. Gist and L. A. Halbert, *Urban Society* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1933), p. 157.

The slums, "Chinatown," immigrant communities identified as "Little Italy" and "Polishtown," the "Gold Coast," are examples of such areas in large cities. These areas form a logical basis for compiling data and for social research. The research worker, however, must realize that these areas are not always clearly demarcated. Some shade into each other, and any boundary must be drawn arbitrarily. Further, these areas are not static; they are ever changing.

The term *natural area* is not necessarily limited to a small section of a city, but may be used to designate a much larger territory, such as a *metropolitan district* or a *region.*

Concentric Zones

In attempting to interpret the pattern of city growth, E. W. Burgess[28] developed the theory of the *concentric zones* in which, by a series of concentric circles, he illustrates "both the successive zones of urban extension and the types of areas differentiated in the process of the expansion." The first or inner circle includes the central business district and is the focus of the commercial, social, and civic life of the community. It is characterized by large hotels, downtown churches, transportation terminals, large office buildings, banks, theatres, and department stores. The second zone is one which is being invaded by business and light manufacturing. It surrounds the central business district. It is an area in transition[29] with a large amount of physical and social deterioration. Here are found the racial and immigrant colonies, the rooming-house districts, the slums with their poverty, disease, vice, and crime. The third zone, designated as the area of *workingmen's homes,* is an area of second immigrant settlement inhabited predominantly by factory and shop workers. It is an area of two-flat dwellings. The fourth zone is the *residential area.* Here are located the better residences where live the middle class—small businessmen, salesmen, clerks, and professional men. The area is characterized by single detached dwellings or exclusive apartment buildings. Beyond this area is the fifth zone which includes the suburban areas and the various satellite cities. This area is beyond the city limits and is also known as the commuters' zone.

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[27] Zorbaugh, *op. cit.*, p. 224.

[28] E. W. Burgess and R. E. Park, Editors, *The City* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), p. 50.

[29] The use of the term "transition zone," is being questioned. It is suggested that the term "stagnation zone" better describes the actual present-day scene. See Richard Dewey, "The Neighborhood Urban Ecology and City Planning," *American Sociological Review,* XV (August 1950), pp. 502-507.

Though of some value in ecological research, this concept of concentric zones has very definite limitations. Because of physical features, railroad lines, and other factors, no city fits perfectly into this scheme.

The Gradient Theory

A concept closely related to that of the concentric zones is the concept of *gradient.* This concept emphasizes the rate of change of a variable condition in terms of its distribution over a given area. For example, in a study of juvenile delinquency by Clifford R. Shaw, it was found that the rates of delinquency tended to decline progressively as the distance from the central business district increased. This concept has been applied to other types of studies.

The Sector Theory

The sector theory of the internal pattern of a city is a theory of axial development, according to which growth takes place along main transportation routes or along lines of least resistance to form a star-shaped city. A refinement of this theory by Homer Hoyt states that growth along a particular axis of transportation usually consists of similar types of land use. "The entire city is considered as a circle and the various areas as sectors radiating out from the center of that circle; similar types of land use originate near the center of the circle and migrate outward toward the periphery."[30] For example, a high-rent residential area in a particular quadrant of the city would tend to migrate outward but always keeping in the same quadrant. The same would be true of a low-quality housing area.[31]

The Theory of Multiple Nuclei

The land-use pattern in many cities is built around several discrete nuclei rather than a single center. The city may have begun with a single nucleus and, with its growth, given rise to separate nuclei. The development of these differentiated districts results from a combination of four factors:

1. Some activities require specialized facilities. For example, retail districts are usually situated at the point of greatest intra-city accessibility, and manufacturing districts near water or rail connections.
2. Like activities generally group together because they profit from proximity. Retail establishments benefit from grouping which increases the concentration of potential customers.
3. Unlike activities are inimical to each other. A high-income residential development is unlikely to be adjacent to a factory development. A retail district with its heavy concentration of pedestrian and motor traffic is antagonistic to the requirements of a wholesale district with its loading space and railroad facilities.
4. Some activities are unable to afford the high rents of the most desirable sites.

Though the number of nuclei varies from city to city, certain general patterns of districts are recognizable in most large American cities. These include the central business district; the residential district; minor nuclei, represented by cultural centers; outlying business districts, or small industrial centers; suburbs and satellite communities.[32]

Most cities exhibit aspects of the land-use patterns illustrated above. An understanding of these patterns is useful to the student of community organization in appraising the future prospects of the whole city and the arrangement of its parts.

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[30] Chauncey D. Harris and Edward L. Ullman, "The Nature of Cities," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* Vol. 242 (November 1945), pp. 7-17.

[31] *Ibid.*

[32] *Ibid.,* pp. 14-16.

Census Tracts

In the study of community life the research worker has found it necessary to devise some satisfactory spatial area which would include only small segments of the city. The census tract has been designed to meet this need, and the system has now been established in most of the large cities.[33]

In current practice, each tract ordinarily contains a population between 3,000 and 6,000. The tracts are permanently established so that comparisons can be made from year to year and from census to census; they are laid out with a view to approximate uniformity in population and with some regard for uniformity in size; and each is designed to include an area fairly homogeneous with respect to race, national origin, economic status, and living conditions.[34] A wealth of census data is thus made available to "tracted cities" on the basis of these small units rather than solely for the city as a whole. For scientific diagnoses, it is important to know in detail, for instance, how the population, according to sex, age, race, nationality, education, and other characteristics, is distributed within the city. In this manner it is possible to localize problems and also to chart population shifts and population characteristics from decade to decade. It is possible to draw an accurate and detailed picture of social conditions for every part of the city by organizing data of various kinds on the basis of census tracts.

The census tract street index is an important tool for conducting research based on census tracts. This index permits easy and rapid allocation of specific street addresses according to census tracts. The street index obviates the necessity of using a map for the location of addresses.

In preparation for locating addresses according to census tracts, greater speed and accuracy in coding may be obtained by arranging the addresses alphabetically for the named streets and serially for the numbered streets. In this way it is possible to code many addresses with a single reference to a given street. Separate cards or slips are suggested for easy sorting.

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[33] At the time of the 1940 census, census tracts had been developed for sixty cities in continental United States.

[34] *Census Tract Manual,* 3rd edition, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, January, 1947, p. 1.

THE STATISTICAL METHOD IN COMMUNITY STUDY

"Statistics is applied mathematics, and social statistics is mathematics applied to social data." [35] Statistics express social facts quantitatively and provide the social scientist with more precise and objective methods.

Statistics are mentioned here because of their importance as a method and because they are related to some of the other methods of community study presented earlier in this chapter. They have their uses, but also their limitations. Often the role of statistics is to make more exact what is already known. They do not provide information regarding causal factors. These limitations must be recognized by the research student if the statistical approach is to be used scientifically.

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Community organization workers and staff members of direct-service agencies must have an understanding of the community milieu in which they work. Of especial importance to all workers is an understanding of the wide range of social welfare services which exist in most communities.

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[35] Bogardus, *op. cit.,* p. 45.

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Types of Social Welfare Services

A great variety of social welfare services have developed. It is important that both board and staff members know not only their own agency and its work, but also the field of work with which they are associated. It is important that they know other fields of social welfare services and how they all fit together. Only by knowing about different types of services can they help co-ordinate them, achieve balance, fill gaps and eliminate undue overlapping and unnecessary duplications. It is essential, therefore, that persons related to community welfare services know something about all types of services.

This chapter will describe how the various fields of social welfare services and their specializations have developed. A wide range of information must be covered, and the description will inevitably omit a good deal of important subject matter. Further consideration of these services can be found in many texts.[1] The emphasis here is on the major characteristics of the services which must be co-ordinated.

A serious problem presents itself in finding a satisfactory classification to use in presenting the services and agencies to be described. Social welfare services are frequently classified in different ways: by clientele, as family services, child care services, youth services, work with the aged, and so on; by the major program emphasis, as health services, recreation, informal education; by the major method used, as case work, group work. No one classification yet devised seems to include all the various types of services. Combinations of classifications inevitably overlap each other. The problems, service functions, and service systems of community organization for community welfare have been summarized in a current study[2] in four categories: (1) Dependency; (2) Ill Health; (3) Maladjustment; (4) Recreational Need.

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[1] See Arthur E. Fink, *The Field of Social Work* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1942), *The Social Work Yearbooks,* and other references later in this chapter for greater detail.

The following categories will be used in this chapter because of their familiarity to most readers: Family Services; Child Care Services; Health and Medical Services; Mental Hygiene Services; Public Welfare and Assistance; Courts, Probation, and Parole; Leisure-Time Services; and Other Social Welfare Services.

Family Services[3]

Family social work represents one of the oldest and most comprehensive types of social welfare services. From it have developed many of the other specialized services found in communities today.

ORIGINS AND FORERUNNERS

Impulses for mutual aid characterized many of the earliest societies. Primitive peoples expressed kindliness and concern for unfortunate members of their communities. Biblical injunctions for alms and succor record similar fellow feeling. The early monastic orders provided food, shelter, and clothing for needy people.

When the breakup of feudalism created large numbers of wandering people, searching for employment and a place to locate, legal steps were taken to deal with poverty. The English Parliament in 1536 enacted a law providing that alms were to be collected by churches and that local authorities were to help the poor. Punishments were decreed for begging and loitering. Poor relief in England became characterized by repression, local responsibility, and work relief.

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[2] J. Bradley Buell and Associates, *Community Organization for Community Welfare* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951).

[3] For more complete discussions of the development and characteristics of family social work see Arthur E. Fink, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-45; and Frank J. Hertel, "Family Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1951* (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), pp. 183-190.

The Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601 established the basis of poor relief in England and the United States for the next two hundred years. It created three categories of relief recipients: (1) the able-bodied poor, for whom employment was provided, under penalty of jail or the "stocks"; (2) the impotent-poor (unemployables), for whom almshouses were provided; and (3) dependent children, who were to be apprenticed—boys until they were twenty-four years old and girls until they were twenty-one or married. The workhouse test was soon adopted and a system of allowances was later developed. Changing social conditions, and abuses under the law, led to revisions in 1834. A "framework of prevention" was provided by principles adopted in 1909. Early American systems of relief reflected this English experience. Almshouses became the refuge of all types of needy and handicapped people. Later, separate institutions developed.

Private charity first became highly organized in Hamburg and Elberfeld, Germany, where districts were established, a central bureau set up, and citizen-visitors assigned to investigate paupers.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES

The family social work movement really began with the founding of the Charity Organization Society in London in 1869. It was designed to co-ordinate and systematize the services of existing voluntary agencies, particularly those giving relief. Eight years later, in 1877, the first such society in the United States was organized at Buffalo. This organization, which was followed within a few years by similar societies in twenty-five other cities, emphasized four central principles: (1) investigation of every applicant; (2) central registration; (3) co-operation of all relief agencies; and (4) the general use of volunteer friendly visitors.

The basic focus of the early charity organization societies was on becoming acquainted with individual families and studying their needs, helping with counsel, encouragement, and friendly interest. Some attention was also given to poverty and related problems, such as ill health, unemployment, and poor financial planning. The increasing interest in the causes of poverty led to closer study of the causes of individual family maladjustment, and to efforts to improve community conditions, such as better facilities for health care, housing, and employment.

It soon became obvious that the complex problems of family life required specially trained workers. Courses were set up first under agency auspices, which led to the establishment of the first professional school of social work in 1898, the New York School of Philanthropy, now the New York School of Social Work of Columbia University.

The objective of family social workers today is to help troubled individuals to find the best possible solution to their difficulties. They work with individual members of a family, with several members of a family, or with single unattached persons, concentrating on problems which affect the unity and stability of the entire family.

Family social work is done both by agencies which are supported by government funds and by private funds. Governmental agencies include local, county, state, and federal departments and bureaus; voluntary agencies include nonsectarian and sectarian agencies.

CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS

Among other developments which vitally influenced family social work in the United States were the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation in 1909, the National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity (now Family Service Association of America, Inc., and the publication in 1917 of Mary E. Richmond's *Social Diagnosis,* which outlined the developing methods of case work diagnosis and treatment.

Other forces exerted their influence during the years of World Wars I and II and during depression years. Increased interest in psychology and psychiatry brought new understanding of human personality. In early depression years voluntary agencies were deluged with mass unemployment needs. Public agency services were expanded with the Social Security Act of 1935, and private agencies began to focus on preventing individual and family disorganization. Later, public agencies started to emphasize prevention and rehabilitation, as well as the provision of relief itself. Voluntary agencies, according to

Frank J. Hertel,[4] have now come to recognize that (1) the validity of their service should be characterized by qualitative rather than quantitative standards; (2) they should have freedom to demonstrate untried services; (3) they must use carefully determined criteria to select the kinds of family problems and situations in which their services are most likely to be effective.

Family social work in voluntary agencies has been characterized in recent years by a number of important developments. Marriage counseling has become an accepted part of the direct-service program of many family agencies: providing information on marital relationships, helping married people to decide whether or not to live together, advising on sexual maladjustments and other problems. Fees are being established for clients in middle- and upper-income groups. Family life education is being emphasized by many family service societies, in young couples', mothers', and parent-teacher groups. Personnel standards and practices have been consistently raised.

Child Care Services [5]

EARLY DEVELOPMENTS

The development of child welfare services began with provisions for homeless or neglected children. The American colonists followed the plan of placing destitute children in almshouses, or as apprentices, or under indenture with families. The number of homeless children increased in the decades following the Revolutionary War, due to war and to cholera and yellow fever epidemics.

The evils of child maintenance in mixed almshouses and the abuses of the apprentice and indenture systems became increasingly evident, and many states began to found children's institutions. They were modeled after the European institutions established for such purposes and were operated under the auspices of religious or nonsectarian private groups. The number of such institutions for the care of groups of destitute children increased as the country grew, until by 1850 at least 116 such homes had been founded. Public subsidies to private institutions were one factor which influenced the growth.

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[4] Hertel, *ibid.*, p. 185.

[5] See Elizabeth W. Deuel, "Child Welfare," *Social Work Year Book, 1951* (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), pp. 88-101; and Arthur E. Fink, *op. cit.*, pp. 58-105.

Following the Civil War, two types of state institutions were created: homes for soldiers' and sailors' orphans, and state schools for dependent children. The former were soon discontinued, but the state schools, after the first one was established in Michigan in 1874, were opened in many states, particularly the Middle West. From the beginning, these schools placed children in private homes.

MORE MODERN PRACTICES

Special agencies for children began with the organization of the Children's Aid Society in New York City in 1853. The growing concern for neglected and dependent children, and reaction against almshouses and public subsidies to private institutions, led to the founding of many more children's aid societies between 1860 and 1900 and to the spread of the children's home society movement, particularly in the Middle West and the Far West. In 1875, the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was organized for the purpose of taking action against those responsible for wanton neglect or cruelty to children.

Foster home care in private homes was also extended by both the children's aid societies and the children's home societies. Although the methods first used were inadequate, measured by present-day social work practice, the emphasis was placed on the suitability of each home for each child.

Public agency foster home placement began in Massachusetts in 1869, with a visiting service to all children released from state institutions. Such supervision led to the state's paying board for many of the children it placed in private homes. Later, depositing children in almshouses was outlawed, the State Primary School was abolished, and placing children in foster homes was extended. New Jersey in 1899 centralized the control and placement of children under a state board of children's guardians. Pennsylvania combined foster home placement with the services of a state-wide private agency. State and county schools and homes developed systems of placement which at first supplemented and later supplanted the institutions.

Five White House Conferences have been influential in developing more modern care for children. The first, held in 1909, resulted in the first state law (in Illinois, 1911) which implemented the principle of keeping children in their own homes by providing financial aid, and in the establishment of the United States Children's Bureau. Minimum standards for child welfare, related to the employment of children, protection of the health of children and mothers, and protection of children in need of special care, grew out of the 1919 conference. The 1930, 1940, and 1950 conferences gave further impetus to children's welfare services.

Adoption procedures have been improved over the years. Workers in responsible agencies make a careful study of the child and of the prospective home. Legal requirements are more strict: consent of the natural parents is generally required; a waiver of consent from a public official or agency that had been charged with the support of the child is necessary; formal court proceedings are held and the terms of adoption agreed upon; the child is then placed in the adopting home for a period of six months to a year, under the supervision of the court or an agency designated by the court; if no valid objection has been raised, by the end of the trial period, a final decree of adoption is granted, and the child has legally become a member of the adopting family, entitled to all the rights and subject to all the obligations of a natural child.

SPECIALIZED CARE FOR CHILDREN

Many specialized services for the care of children have developed. The first permanent home for the deaf was established in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1817, supported from private and government sources. New York State followed in 1818, and Kentucky in 1822, with state schools for the deaf; many more states soon provided similar facilities. The Perkins Institution and the Massachusetts School for the Blind were founded in 1822. Soon after 1900, many public school systems introduced special day classes or special schools for blind and deaf children. Provisions for mentally deficient children were made in Massachusetts in 1848, in New York in 1854, and later in other states. Care of crippled children started in hospitals but later developed in special institutions and clinics, and in public school classes. Young offenders are now brought before special courts, given special study where needed, and sent to special institutions, when institutional care proves necessary. Children born out of wedlock, and their mothers, often require specialized services, either from a family agency or a child care agency. Victims of neglect and abuse are taken under the care of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children.

Day nurseries and foster day care have developed generally in larger industrial centers where women are employed. With provision of aid to dependent children in their own homes, under the provisions of the Social Security Act, such services have not grown appreciably in recent years.

CHILD CARE PROVISIONS OF THE SOCIAL SECURITY ACT

The Social Security Act of 1935 marked a new era in federal responsibility for child care, as well as in broader welfare services. Amendments in 1939, 1946, 1948, and 1950 have clarified and extended its provisions. The Act provides for grants to states for aid to dependent children, crippled children, maternal and child health.

Practically all states now have state-federal aid to dependent children programs. Adequacy of aid varies from state to state, but the programs have been greatly expanded, both in the number of children assisted and the more adequate assistance given. Allocations are made to states, under the Act, for "establishing, extending, and strengthening, especially in predominantly rural areas, public welfare services for the protection and care of homeless, dependent, and neglected children, and children in danger of becoming delinquent." The number of trained child welfare workers in rural areas especially has thereby been greatly increased.

Services for crippled children, made available by the Social Security Act, are administered by the federal Children's Bureau. All states now have legislation authorizing an official state agency to provide for treatment and care of crippled children. States must match the federal grants for these services with state funds.

Maternal and child health services have been given great impetus by the Social Security Act, with its provisions for grants to be matched by allocations of state funds. An increasing number of states have organized services for premature infants, diagnostic and treatment clinics for infants and preschool children, and medical examinations for school children. Pediatric consultation is available in many states, and nutritional and dental services are being extended.

Health and Medical Services

The health and medical services provided through hospitals, clinics, physicians and surgeons, nurses, medical social workers, and a variety of community health agencies, are a vital part of the service systems of modern communities. The increasing concern for the health of all people, the rapid advances of medical science and the high cost of medical care have made health and medical services a pivotal aspect of planning of community social welfare services.

MEDICAL CARE

The voluntary hospital has occupied a central place in efforts to improve medical care. Voluntary hospitals originally were institutions to provide custodial care for the sick poor. Many of them are now centers for high-quality medical care for paying and nonpaying patients, with clinics, outpatient services, research, and training programs. Physicians and surgeons attached to approved hospitals, or readily accessible to them, occupy a central place in hospital care.

Americans make an enormous investment in medical care—over nine billion dollars a year. In return, they receive a quality of medical care as high and a quantity as large, in all probability, as the people of any other nation in the world. In 1949, there were 1,439,030 beds in 6,572 registered hospitals in the United States, over 193,000 active physicians and over 300,000 nurses.[6] There were full-time health departments in 1874 counties with a population of 113,000,000 people. But distribution of these services show striking discrepancies: for example, New

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[6] See "Medical Care," by Franz Goldman, *Social Work Year Book, 1951* (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), pp. 303-315, for more extended discussion of this topic.

York State had 4.6 beds in general hospitals for each 1,000 residents, while Mississippi had only 2 beds; New York had one physician for each 637 people, while Mississippi had only one physician to each 1,923 people. Within every state, the differences in available medical care are similar. Children and adults in rural and semirural areas receive far less medical services than do people in large urban centers.

GOVERNMENT AID PROGRAMS

Nearly four-fifths of all hospital beds of all types are owned and operated by federal, state, and local governments. A very large proportion of government-operated health services, however, are supplied to special groups—members of the armed forces, veterans, seamen, needy people, and to patients hospitalized for mental illness and tuberculosis. Grant-in-aid programs, however, under which grants are made to states under specified formula for matching funds provided by each state, have greatly influenced the distribution of medical care for the general public, through programs related to public health services, maternal and child health, crippled children, venereal disease, tuberculosis, mental hygiene, cancer, hospital and health center construction, and vocational rehabilitation.

Government also influences health and medical care through public health departments, with their services designed to protect and improve the health of civilians through regulatory laws, services, and facilities. The programs of local health departments ordinarily include vital statistics, community sanitation, control of communicable and preventable diseases, laboratory services, maternal and child health services, and public health education. State health departments study state health problems, co-ordinate the work of local health departments, establish and enforce minimum standards, collect state-wide statistics, and provide financial aid. Federal services are primarily concentrated in the Federal Security Agency, through the Public Health Service, Children's Bureau, Food and Drug Administration, and other bureaus.

School health programs also represent an important part of the government-sponsored health services, with their emphasis on health protection, medical examinations and counseling, nursing services, dental programs, health education, and other emphases.

HEALTH INSURANCE

Contributory health insurance has become a widespread method for financing medical care, especially for removing the burden of unpredictable sickness costs.

Blue Cross hospitalization insurance plans now include more than 28,000,000 subscribers, at a cost of about $30 a year for a family of three or more. Such hospitalization services represent about 15 per cent of the average annual expenditure for all medical care. Blue Shield plans sponsored by medical societies provide cash payments toward the cost of physicians' services and, in some cases, hospital care. Only limited protection is thus provided to the 7,000,000 insurees, as the costs usually exceed the payments made. Commercial insurance companies insured 17,000,000 persons in 1948 for payments toward hospital costs and 13,000,000 for payments toward physicians' or surgeons' fees. Payments for physicians' and surgeons' fees are largely limited to services in hospitals.

Compulsory health insurance plans have been advocated for many years as a means of making necessary medical services available to everyone. They have been advocated by consumer groups and public health bodies, and opposed by the American Medical Association.

OTHER COMMUNITY HEALTH SERVICES

A number of other community agencies provide health services of different kinds. They include the Visiting Nurse Association, first organized in 1893 by Lillian Wald and Mary Brewster on New York's East Side, the American Red Cross, with its nurses aid training and other services, the health education programs of Y.M.C.A.'s, Y.W.C.A.'s, Boys' Clubs and other youth agencies, Workshops for the Handicapped, Social Hygiene Societies, and many others.

Another group of health agencies which sometimes complicate local planning relationships are the national organizations which are concerned with one type of illness, such as the cancer, heart, tuberculosis, polio organizations which ordinarily conduct their own campaigns for funds.

MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK

Medical social work is the type of social work which has developed in relation to the practice of medicine in hospitals and other organized programs of medical care. Social case work is used to help the physician and the patient to understand related environmental difficulties and sources of misunderstanding and tension. Knowledge about health and disease, scientific medicine and medical practice, acceptance of the concept of the organism as a whole, understanding of the role of the emotions and the meaning of behavior in illness, and knowledge of community resources are basic to medical social work.

Medical social work has expanded greatly since the early experiments at Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Berkeley Infirmary and Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, and Presbyterian Hospital, New York, until it is now utilized generally. Its use has in recent years spread to local and state departments of health and welfare, to rehabilitation services, to consultative services in the programs administered by the Federal Security Agency—the crippled children's and maternal and child health services, the programs of the Bureau of Public Assistance and the tuberculosis control program of the Public Health Service. Medical social workers are also employed in specialized voluntary programs for prevention of blindness and the care of patients with cancer, heart disease, tuberculosis, and other chronic conditions. Numerous relationships are necessary, and medical social work has become one of the important facets of a community health service system in which effective co-ordination is imperative.

Mental Hygiene Services[7]

Mental hygiene includes a variety of services designed to preserve mental health, not only those aimed at the prevention of mental ill health.

The earliest mental hygiene activities in this country were directed toward improvement of institutional care, and treatment of patients with mental diseases. The efforts of Dorothea

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[7] See "Mental Hygiene" by James V. Lowry, *Social Work Year Book, 1951* (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), pp. 320-330.

Dix in the 1840's and 1850's led to the establishment of mental hospitals. Impetus came later from the publication of Clifford Beers' *A Mind That Found Itself,* and a state society for mental hygiene was established in Connecticut in 1908, followed by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene in 1909.

Three stages can be identified in the development of mental hygiene services: (1) the care and treatment of institutionalized mentally ill; (2) the establishment of child guidance clinics, in the early 1920's; (3) exploration of the possibilities of preventing mental illness and of maintaining mental health. In the current third stage, many groups have become involved: psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, clinical psychologists, teachers, clergymen, social workers, public health personnel, and many other groups.

Mental health is an extensive problem. It is estimated that more than 1,000,000 persons received care and treatment in mental hospitals and institutions in a recent year.[8] The care and treatment of patients with mental disorders has become accepted as a public responsibility, though facilities are as yet inadequate in relation to the need.

Study of mentally ill adults has shown that many of their illnesses had their beginnings in childhood disorders. Guidance clinics have developed to supply therapeutic assistance.

The National Mental Health Act, enacted in 1946, has stimulated research and training programs and assisted states in establishing community mental health services. Community education for mental health, group therapy, special study of alcoholism, epilepsy, and geriatrics are among the current important emphases.

Mental hygiene services represent an extremely important community resource of which all social workers should be aware.

Public Welfare and Public Assistance Services

Public welfare and public assistance, as they are known today, are largely developments of the twentieth century, but their roots go back several centuries. Dominant principles in early public welfare included local responsibility for care, eligibility for aid based on legal settlement, emphasis on legal fam-

[8] *Ibid.,* p. 322.

ily responsibility. Poverty was generally considered to be due to individual inadequacy. Towns or townships or counties were responsible for all classes of destitute, whether dependent, delinquent, mentally ill, or handicapped, it is interesting to note.

TRANSITION

A great transition has occurred from these early concepts to the principles underlying modern public welfare programs. Four distinct shifts can be identified as one studies the agency reports and other records through the years:

1. Local and later local-state responsibility has shifted to a combination of local-state-federal responsibility, with the Federal Government carrying a large share of the financial responsibility.
2. The early emphasis on care in institutions has changed to a combination of institutional care and assistance to people in their own or in other homes.
3. Where private agencies formerly carried the primary responsibility for general assistance and relief, public agencies, utilizing tax funds, now provide by far the greater proportion of such services.
4. Assistance to needy people has changed from a very limited basis to a comprehensive program, both in the amounts of assistance provided and the groups and individuals eligible to receive them.

These and related changes occurred most noticeably during the depression years of the early 1930's. Until 1929 the private social work agencies had dominated the field of social work. Public agencies were staffed, in most cases, by people with less adequate training. When the number of unemployed reached staggering totals, expanded private agency funds proved insufficient to meet the needs for relief, despite large emergency relief campaigns. City funds and then state funds had been made available, but they also soon proved too limited. A number of federal programs were successively inaugurated; these programs laid the foundation for a continued basis of federal participation in public welfare programs and resulted in profound and far-reaching changes in the organization of public welfare and public assistance.

THE SOCIAL SECURITY ACT

The Social Security Act incorporated and extended many of the new principles of public welfare which had evolved. Though the Act includes provisions which are not, in the strictest sense, public assistance, its three main aspects need to be described so that their relationships to each other and to the total program of public welfare and the total program of community social welfare services can be understood. The three main divisions of the Act are: (1) the social insurance features, (2) the public assistance provisions, and (3) a miscellaneous group of welfare and health services.

1. *The social insurance features* provide against the contingency of unemployment and the certainty of retirement or death. Employers and employees pay a tax, based on wages or salary. Each state that elects to have an unemployment insurance law must submit a satisfactory plan to the Social Security Board. The Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, the second part of the social security insurance section, is for the purpose of ensuring a worker an annuity, on retirement, for the remainder of his life and to provide payments after his death to his wife and any dependent children. Contributions are made by employers and employees on the basis of the first $3600 of wages or salary. To receive payments individuals must have retired at 65 years of age or later and must have received wages of at least $50 a quarter in each of six calendar quarters preceding the time of retirement.

2. *The public assistance provisions* made available, for the first time in history, financial aid to states in a federal-state co-operative program of public assistance. Three groups are differentiated: the aged, the blind, and dependent children. Grants to states are made subject to acceptable state plans submitted to the Social Security Board. Two conditions for aid to a recipient are involved: (1) need and (2) proof of age, blindness, or dependency. State or local sharing of the costs of the grants and administration are required. Administration and supervision remain with each state.

3. *The miscellaneous group of welfare and health services* includes grants to states for maternal and child welfare services, services to crippled children, services for children in predomi-

nantly rural areas, vocational rehabilitation, and public health work. Each state must provide for financial participation by the state, administration by the state health agency (for maternal and child-health services), proper and efficient administration, reports, extension and improvement of local maternal and child-health services, co-operation with medical, nursing, and welfare groups, and demonstration services in needy areas and among groups in special need.

Amendments to the Social Security Act have increased the coverage of persons, particularly in the Old-Age and Survivors Insurance program, and have increased the amounts of allotments to individuals under the public assistance provisions.

Organizational changes in towns, cities, and counties have developed as a result of these federal programs. Local and district departments of public welfare were created. State departments of public welfare became necessary and have exercised supervisory powers. The Federal Government, through the Social Security Board, has formulated standards and provided funds.

CASE WORK IN PUBLIC ASSISTANCE

Case work in earlier years was primarily restricted to private agencies. As public agencies became responsible for large-scale relief, however, with millions of people eligible and millions of dollars of public funds involved, higher standards for personnel in public welfare agencies became necessary. As the number of professionally trained workers in public welfare services has increased, and the process of relief giving and of other assistance has been clarified, workers have become more aware of the individual needs and capacities of clients, of the limitations of their own agency and its functions, and of the supplementary services that can and should be provided by other agencies. The use of the case work method has increased, and will undoubtedly increase further, in public welfare services, so that not only material relief but assistance with underlying personal problems will be provided in larger measure.

PROBLEMS

At least three important problems have resulted from the major transformation of public welfare services which has gone on in recent decades. A larger proportion of professionally trained workers are needed in public welfare. Relationships between these expanded public agencies and private family service and child care agencies and health agencies must be developed. Greater clarification of function and more effective working relationships are needed. Basic planning and co-ordination problems are involved in local communities, if unnecessary overlapping of services is to be avoided, if inevitable gaps in services are to be filled, and if the necessary integration of various types of public and private agency services, in the general assistance field, is to be achieved.

Courts, Probation, and Parole[9]

Courts were in existence long before organized social work developed. Court precedents and practices were deeply entrenched, and the ideas underlying social work have been relatively slow in influencing ways of dealing with offenders and wards of the court.

The English common law provided two bases for juvenile court legislation: (1) the old courts of equity or chancery protected those unable to provide for themselves; and (2) under common law rule, children below seven years of age were considered incapable of committing crime. Under a Massachusetts law of 1869, an agent of the State Department of Charities was required to attend the hearing on commitment of a child to a reformatory, and a law of 1870 stipulated that a court hold separate sessions for children's cases. In 1878 an official probation system was established. The Illinois legislature passed the first juvenile court law in 1899 when it gave the county and circuit courts jurisdiction over dependent, neglected, and delinquent children, and established a juvenile court for Cook County. By 1945 juvenile court legislation had been enacted for all states and territories. The first domestic relations court was established in Buffalo in 1910, with jurisdiction over all criminal business relating to domestic affairs, including paternity cases. In 1914 Hamilton County, Ohio, founded the first family court combining jurisdiction over domestic relations and juvenile cases.

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[9] See "The Courts, Probation, and Parole," in Fink, *op. cit.*, pp. 213-251, and "Juvenile and Domestic Relations Courts," by Gustav L. Schwamm, *Social Work Year Book, 1951* (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), pp. 269-296.

Most state laws permit the initiation of cases in juvenile court by petition instead of by complaint or indictment as in criminal cases. They generally permit social investigation to determine the child's need, prior to the hearing, and a few states specifically provide for preliminary inquiry prior to the filing of a petition. Special qualifications are ordinarily required for judges for juvenile and domestic court judges. Procedures, particularly in juvenile courts, are usually informal. The social services, beginning at intake, are of primary importance. They include (1) preliminary investigation to determine whether the child can safely remain in his own home pending further study and court action; (2) arrangement for detention if endorsed by the court, or other temporary care if needed; (3) social study of the child's situation for the aid of the judge in deciding what action to take; and (4) helping the child and his family to understand and face the situation and to take the steps necessary to arrive at a solution of the problem or to change the behavior or conditions which were responsible for bringing the child to the attention of the court. An important recent development, in some states, is the creation of state youth authorities or boards, which are assigned jurisdiction of juveniles by the courts and which provide for more intensive study, make treatment plans, and supervise them.

PROBATION

Probation began informally in Boston in 1841 and was officially established in 1878. Within two years it was state-wide; and now every state has made provision for juvenile probation. The federal probation service, begun in 1925, has developed into a national service for adult and juvenile offenders.

The basic elements in the probation process are pre-sentence investigation and supervision. Understanding and insight into human personality and behavior are necessary. Probation is a helping service in an authoritarian setting. Not all probation is successful. Success in probation depends on many factors, some related to the probationer and to the supervisor, some related to the other people and to the community itself. It is sometimes necessary for the probation to be revoked.

PAROLE

Parole, the release of offenders from prison before the maximum sentence has been served, is an important part of modern correctional treatment. Indefinite sentence, with minimum-maximum terms, are generally provided, so that offenders may be returned to the community to make their adjustment to normal life under some form of supervision.

In most states, selection and supervision of parolees is done through a state board. A few have single parole directors responsible to the governor. Parole laws generally require that a parolee be under supervision until his maximum sentence has expired. Some include a parole period beyond the maximum terms of imprisonment. Trained personnel, using the case work method, is necessary and is being provided more generally today.

Leisure-Time Services

A great variety of leisure-time services are available in most communities. These services include voluntary youth agencies which provide recreation and informal educational activities and related services, municipal recreation departments, state-federal park systems, federal rural agency programs, social-religious-fraternal organizations, and commercial recreation.

Until relatively recent years, leisure-time services have not generally been considered a part of the community social welfare service system. Many of the voluntary agencies providing such services, however, are now supported through community chests. They join in interagency planning of social welfare services. Leisure-time services have also become accepted as fundamental to community welfare. Tax-supported programs of recreation for people of all ages have now been generally developed.

Municipal authorities in all forty-eight states have established recreation services. The growth of municipal recreation is evident from the fact that in 1946, 1,790 community recreation agencies—most of them recreation, park, or school departments—reported service or facilities in 1,743 different communities. Expenditures for public recreation reported in 1,488 of these communities exceeded $54,000,000. A wide range of activities is provided—athletics of all types, handcrafts, dramatics and music, and many others.

Numerous voluntary organizations provide leisure-time services for boys and girls and for adults. Some are sponsored by Catholic, Jewish, or Protestant organizations. Others are independent agencies. Some local organizations function as branches of national agencies and some as local groups.

These organizations differ in purpose and educational philosophy. Statements of objectives tend to reflect sponsorship. Some organizations list general objectives such as citizenship training, character building, and education for effective living. Others are organized around a specific interest, for example: 4-H Clubs, sponsored by the United States Department of Agriculture, stress ideals and standards in rural life; the Future Farmers of America, the development of agricultural leadership.

The difference in educational philosophy is also expressed through the extent to which the different organizations utilize the philosophy and methods of group work. The agencies do differ considerably in this respect, but there has been a growing recognition of the importance of trained leadership in dealing with youth and in viewing activities as tools for personality development and individual growth rather than as ends in themselves. Organizations have been moving definitely away from a primary focus on activities toward a greater concern for planning and adapting program to the interest and needs of individual youth.

Organizations like the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boys' Clubs, Jewish Centers, and settlements own their buildings in most cities and provide services for all age groups. More and more, such organizations have been becoming co-educational. The other organizations, which primarily serve boys and girls and older youth (Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, 4-H Clubs, etc.) utilize the facilities of public schools and churches and the other youth agencies mentioned, for their programs. A growing trend is evident on the part of building-centered agencies, however, to serve youth through extension programs in schools, churches, and privately owned buildings.

Some of the organizations serve primarily a middle-class constituency. In some cities and in rural areas and small towns, recreation services and opportunities are less available for youth in low-income families, for Negro boys and girls, and for girls as compared with boys. Boys' Clubs and settlements and some Y and Scout programs operate predominantly in low-income areas. Rural areas are served primarily by public agencies and church-sponsored programs. All agencies, however, have in recent years been increasing their efforts to extend their services to all groups in the population regardless of economic status, community background, or place of residence, it is encouraging to observe.

The types of groups usually found in the agencies vary from closely knit clubs or friendship groups to artificially-formed or "fabricated" groups and more loosely organized teen-age canteens. Boys and girls to the age of twelve are served primarily through groups formed by the agency on the basis of such factors as age, interest, school, or educational achievement. Emphasis is usually placed on supplementing the work of the schools and homes. Crafts, arts, music, games, storytelling, informal dramatics, folk dancing, trips, and social activities form the core of most such programs. Teen-age groups function more through clubs which are friendship groups with a fairly definite form of organization, a multi-activity program, and usually self-government, which provides the groundwork for training in the democratic process.

Programs in leisure-time services, apart from the recreational activities per se, tend to reflect the prevalent "social climate." During recent years, for example, organizations moved away from some of the emphases which grew out of World War II toward a greater concern for helping youth to understand world relationships. Programs have tended to revolve around United Nations themes; and projects for "adoption" of children in Europe, "Clothes for Friendship" programs, exchange of art exhibits, and the like have been stressed.

Trends toward greater planning and co-ordination between organizations providing leisure-time services, and with other community service agencies have been evident in the last decade. Such efforts were greatly stimulated during the years of World War II. Further planning and closer working relationships between governmental and voluntary agencies are much needed and should be the goals of the leaders.

Other Social Welfare Services

A great many communities also have a number of other community social welfare agencies. They include agencies that work with migrants, transients, and travelers, such as the Travelers Aid, those that work with aliens and foreign-born people, social service exchanges or indexes, legal aid societies, organizations that deal with disaster relief, such as the American Red Cross, others that deal with civil rights, and some that provide services for special racial groups.

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It is obvious, from the foregoing all-too-brief descriptions of the characteristics of the many types of services involved in the social welfare service systems of most communities, that innumerable relationships are involved for board and staff members in any one of them. Studies have shown that people known to one agency are likely to be known to and receive service from one or more other agencies. No one agency can provide all the different services any one family or individual is likely to need. Close working relationships are inevitable. It is therefore of great importance that workers in any one agency, or field of service, know what other agencies do and who their key personnel are, and that they join together to help provide well-balanced, well-integrated services for all the people in the community.

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The Growth and Development of Public Agency Services

PUBLIC AGENCY SERVICES have come to play an increasingly important and expanded role in American community life. The term "public agency," as used in this chapter, designates the governmental tax-supported, social work agencies.

Public Social Work

Public welfare services have been particularly in evidence in the last two decades. This is not to say, however, that public social services did not appear upon the American scene until recently. It is true that public social work has made tremendous advances since the 1930's but, as indicated in Chapter 4, public welfare services in this country may be traced back to colonial times when many of the colonies adopted the English Poor Laws and thus made concern for the poor a public responsibility.

Private social work has been a natural development in our democratic culture with its emphasis on private enterprise. However, the public welfare movement has been another facet in the western social welfare system, actually antedating private agencies in this country. That this fact is not always recognized is evident in the existence of the belief that the only history of social work in America is that of the private agencies.

EXTENSION OF PUBLIC SERVICES

Historically, welfare services have been associated with the problems of the poor. Though welfare today is concerned with the broad problems of dependency and maladjustment, the "man in the street" still relates welfare to "relief." That this conception should prevail is not astounding. Concern has been primarily focused on the poor. Public welfare services are directed toward the economically insecure people in a population.

LOCAL PUBLIC WELFARE

With the colonists coming largely from England there also came English institutions, customs, laws, and ideas. The stigma which is still attached to "relief" goes back to the practices which made relief as unpalatable as possible. The names of the recipients were placed on the pauper role which became a public document for all to see. The denial of certain rights of citizenship to persons on relief and the dispensing of the meager relief through almshouses also served as deterrents. It was deemed conducive to public economy and morality to make relief as disagreeable as possible so that the recipient would be forced to seek some means of self-support, and to discourage border-line cases from becoming public charges.

The almshouse was the community catch-all, under whose roof were to be found the old and the young, the mentally ill, the mentally deficient, the alcoholic, the criminal. Changes in the character of these almshouses were made by withdrawing certain groups for placement in specialized institutions, both public and private. The early orphanages were largely private. The first agencies for the care of the mentally ill were also private, though public insane asylums were established in the Atlantic seaboard states in the middle 1770's. Later, other groups were segregated and cared for in specialized institutions. In the development of public welfare the responsibility for poor relief and, later, for other social welfare problems was placed on the local community. This was especially true in New England. In some instances the township or county units administered public services.

STATE RESPONSIBILITY

Assumption of responsibility for public welfare by the states came slowly and relatively late in the development of this country. Prior to 1930, state responsibility for public aid was limited in the main to institutional care for the poor who were mentally or physically ill, pensions for the aged and blind poor, needy war veterans, and mothers unable to support their dependent children, and services to dependent children.[1]

Some states also provided outdoor (noninstitutional) relief to "unsettled poor." The denial of relief to persons who could not meet the settlement or residence requirement in a particular locality caused a large amount of suffering. As a result large numbers of people shifted back and forth between towns and even states. It was due to this situation that New York and most of the New England states early assumed obligation for their "unsettled poor." By 1930, forty-five states had mother's aid legislation; twenty, pension laws for the blind; twelve, similar legislation for the aged. Practices in these states varied, and the laws were largely permissive rather than mandatory upon the counties. The administration of the program was entrusted to local units with no specific state supervision. The administrative picture was spotty, uneven, and confused.

With the assumption of more and more responsibility for public welfare services, state departments of welfare came into existence. By 1904, only fifteen states had followed the example of Massachusetts which organized the first welfare department in 1863. However, as of 1930, such departments existed in all but five states. Today all states have some form of welfare department.

FEDERAL PUBLIC WELFARE

In the 1850's the Federal Government enunciated a policy which was not reversed until 1933, with the passage of the Federal Emergency Relief Act. As the basis of this policy the Federal Government made no appropriation nor conducted any program for regular direct relief, assistance, or insurance to any group of dependents other than its own employees. Prior to the 1930's the government had made some land grants to states and had also appropriated money for projects, some of which were closely allied to social work. It made emergency appropriations for relief to sufferers in disasters and gave financial assistance to states in carrying on certain services in the fields of health, welfare, and education. However, no federal relief had ever been voted for the unemployed in any industrial depression.

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[1] *Security, Work, and Relief Policies.* Report of the Committee on Long-Range Work and Relief Policies to the National Resources Planning Board, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1943, p. 28. (Document No. 128, Part 3.)

The depression of 1929 and the early 1930's will probably be recognized as the turning point in the relief policies in the United States. The depression was largely responsible for the changed rule of the Federal Government in social welfare. The decade of the thirties was a period of intense activity in the field of public aid.

Early in the depression the local relief agencies, both public and private, struggled to meet the increased public need resulting from the unprecedented unemployment. The numbers of unemployed increased from about 2,500,000 in 1929 to a peak of 13,000,000 in 1933. To meet this crisis local public appropriations and private contributions increased markedly. Subsidies from local governments to private agencies increased in number and amount. Many communities found it increasingly difficult to continue these appropriations, owing in part to the high percentage of tax delinquencies. The Family Welfare Association of America (now the Family Service Association of America, Inc.) and Community Chests and Councils, Inc. (now Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc.) did a great deal in terms of organizing and promoting the work of the private agencies.

Because the responsibility for meeting emergency needs was placed on local communities, and particularly upon private charity, federal action at first was limited to the organization of committees. The President's Emergency Committee on Unemployment was organized in 1930, and the President's Organization on Unemployment Relief, in 1931. These were advisory committees, having no administrative function and no relief funds. They concerned themselves with encouraging local initiative.

The demonstrated inadequacy of local resources and the continued need brought increasing pressure upon Congress to provide federal aid. In the meantime, the Federal Government's position that all relief responsibilities belonged to the local communities and especially to private initiative changed. It acknowledged that most, if not all, of the burden would have to be carried by local public funds. The next shift in position came when it recognized that states would have to help when local resources were not sufficient. The third step was taken by the Federal Government when in 1932 it provided federal assistance on a limited scale through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, to aid in financing agriculture, commerce, and industry. Finally, on July 21, 1932, the Emergency Relief and Construction Act made possible the provision of "advances" to states for relief and work plans. This Act marked the first formal acceptance by the Federal Government of any responsibility for aid in meeting the burden of unemployed relief.

The first really significant federal legislation was not secured until the Federal Emergency Relief Act was approved on May 12, 1933. This provided the first direct federal grants to the states for unemployment relief and created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

During the 1933–1935 period, a number of other measures were introduced to meet the unemployment problem. The Civilian Conservation Corps, as a federal agency for the relief of unemployment, was authorized by Act of Congress approved March 31, 1933. On June 6, 1933, the United States Employment Service was created as a bureau in the Department of Labor to develop a national system of employment offices. The National Industrial Recovery Act of June 16, 1933, appropriated funds to encourage national industrial recovery and to provide for the construction of useful public works. Under this act, the Emergency Administration of Public Works (PWA) was created as a "pump-priming" device. The Federal Civil Works Administration (CWA) was created in November, 1933, to supplement PWA and help meet the critical unemployment needs of the winter. In October of that same year, the Federal Surplus Relief Corporation was created to distribute some of the country's agricultural surpluses to those in need.

The Federal Emergency Relief Act of 1933 proved the most important of the measures in the field of public aid up to this time. The federal relief administration thus established aided in the reorganization of state emergency relief administrations and in the creation of new ones. By governing the expenditure of federal funds granted to the states, the federal administration was enabled to set standards of personnel and relief administration, as well as to raise the amounts of relief grants.

A PERMANENT PROGRAM

With the waning of the emergency aspect of the federal program during 1933–1935, the need for a more permanent federal social welfare organization became apparent. The nation-wide system of reporting relief statistics, established by FERA, confirmed the existence of a very large amount of economic need, chronic in nature and only aggravated by the depression. This knowledge stimulated the transition from a program of federal emergency relief to a program on a permanent basis for social security in the form of special public assistance and social insurance.

The Social Security Act introduced a new era in federal assumption of responsibility in the social welfare field. The new role played by the Federal Government in this field was probably the outstanding feature of the 1930's. It reflected a recognition of the complexity and extensiveness of the economic problems and the modification of the attitudes people held toward governmental assistance. Matters which to many had been a strictly private concern had become the concern of the federal, state, and local governments.

OTHER FEDERAL WELFARE ACTIVITIES

There is evidence that the Federal Government has been active in other welfare activities. The organization of the White House Conference for Children and the establishment of the United States Children's Bureau gave evidence that the National Government recognized a definite responsibility for child welfare.

The Federal Security Agency was created by executive order in 1939. During that year most federal agencies concerned with public health and welfare were brought together in this new agency. It was this agency which took major responsibility for meeting the needs growing out of World War II.

With the increasing participation of the Federal Government in health and welfare activities, the question has arisen, "Why is there no federal welfare department?" As early as August, 1937, a bill was introduced in the House of Representatives to establish a Department of Welfare. It was passed by the House but not by the Senate. Developments since then would indicate that establishment of such a department may be realized in the near future unless world events intervene.

Effect of Public Agency Development on Private Agency Services

It soon became apparent that the increased assumption of responsibility for welfare on the part of the public agencies would have an effect on the private agencies, in terms of both service and financing.

PRIVATE AGENCY ROLE

Prior to 1933 and the Federal Emergency Relief Act, private social work agencies were immersed in direct relief activities. During the depression it was soon recognized that for handling the problem of mass relief, private resources were hopelessly inadequate and that public assistance was indispensable. On the other hand, it was also recognized that regardless of the efficiency of public relief, there were areas of human need which it could not reach.

As early as 1934, Porter E. Lee, then director of the New York School of Social Work, attempted to define the new role of the private case work agency. He concluded that social case work must be incorporated into public relief but that the mass relief problem was so vast at the time as to preclude any possibility of such service being made available under public auspices for more than a small part of it. "Those persons in trouble, whose need for other kinds of help and reinforcement transcends their need for relief, must be provided for largely through private agencies."[2]

In this period of expanding federal financial assistance, the private welfare agencies were virtually forced to accept a new role and concentrate their efforts on a sphere of social services different from that of the public agencies. Relieved of the responsibility for providing financial assistance to clients, they were able to devote more attention to personality problems and broader community needs.

The 1939 Annual Report of the Charity Organization Society of New York City echoes this shift in function. Freed by the intervention of the governmental agencies into the field of direct relief, C.O.S. was enabled to concentrate more fully on the area of prevention. One of its primary objectives was stated as follows: "Personal service to families and individuals, in meeting problems of living and of social relationship, with a special interest in reaching toward the origin of these problems, to forestall them or correct them by early treatment." [3]

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[2] Porter E. Lee, "Case Work and Public Relief," *The Survey,* Vol. LXX, No. 10, October, 1934, p. 314.

PRIVATE AGENCY FINANCING

Launching the federal relief program had immediate repercussions in private agency financing. Private agencies administering relief were directly affected by a policy established in June, 1939, by the FERA and carried over into later federal and state relief and assistance programs. The policy stated that all federal funds must be spent by public agencies. Thus, the practice of making subsidies to private agencies for relief purposes was terminated.

Chest campaign results also reflected the activities of FERA. A tabulation of the returns from the community chest campaigns that completed their drives in December, 1933, showed that 175 chests had attained 82.4 per cent of their aggregate goal of $53,851,611, which in turn represented 82 per cent of the amount raised in 1932 for the needs of 1933.[4]

In September of 1934, the community chests launched the Mobilization for Human Needs, a national effort to fortify some 350 chests in their campaigns for funds for the support of local voluntary social welfare agencies. The program focused public attention on the purposes and needs of social work other than direct relief. But "the chest executives were plainly of mixed mind, compounded of the question, 'But how are we going to get the money?' and of fear of sudden changes of relief policy upsetting to the public temper and to their own plans." [5]

"Unemployment relief has practically ceased to be a function of private social agencies, and relief is no longer the touchstone of the community chest appeal."[6] On this thesis, the executive director of Community Chests and Councils, Inc., stated that the appeal for the 1935 campaigns would be comprehensive, constructive, and courageous. It would embrace services of child care and protection, hospitals and nursing, and guidance and leisure-time activities for youth; and it would present them, not as alleviative charity, but as essentials to community rebuilding.[7]

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[3] *New York Times*, April 3, 1939.

[4] "Chest Campaign Results," *The Survey*, Vol. LXX, No. 1, January, 1934, p. 15.

[5] "The Chests Stand Their Ground," *The Survey*, Vol. LXX, No. 10, October, 1934, p. 304.

PUBLIC AGENCIES IN RECREATION

In the foregoing consideration of public agency services, attention has been focused particularly on the relief and social insurance programs, and later on a broader welfare program embraced by the Social Security Act. It is also well to take a look at developments in recreation, one of the fields normally subsumed under the general category of social services. In this field, too, the problem of the changing role of the private agency arises.

Though the assumption of community responsibility for the provision of recreational opportunities is of recent vintage, the increasing public agency activity in this field, particularly in local communities, is forcing some of the private agencies to re-examine their programs.

This matter of relationship and definition of public-private roles is a community organization concern. The community organization worker is always faced with the task of relating the agency resources so as to meet the community needs most efficiently and effectively.

The problem of public-private agency relationships emerged almost full-blown, following the unprecedented participation of the Federal Government in the welfare field. Community welfare surveys conducted after the creation of FERA reflect this concern about function and relationship. The Hartford Survey of 1934 was the first to pick up this note and amplify it. The survey attempted to define the role of the private agencies in welfare, health, and recreation.

The community plan for recreation and youth services for

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[6] Allen T. Burns, "The Keynote of 1934," *The Survey*, Vol. LXX, No. 10, October, 1934, p. 315.

[7] *Ibid.*

Los Angeles,[8] the result of a survey conducted in 1945, made a significant contribution to establishing a division of labor between public and private agencies in the recreation field. The principles of federation enunciated in the Los Angeles study were revised and reorganized in the Long Beach recreation study in 1948.[9] The latter survey stated that there were three fundamental service functions: namely, (1) provision of physical facilities, (2) organization of groups for program purposes, and (3) provision of direction and leadership. The following principles were established under the three functions:

1. *Provision of Physical Facilities . . .*

   The provision of large facilities (such as parks, beaches, golf courses, tennis courts, museums, and libraries) *is considered to be permanently a public agency function.*

   In addition to these large physical facilities there is need in the community for facilities making possible the conduct of an organized activities program. Organized programs require playgrounds; play fields; activities buildings with meeting rooms, game rooms, craft shops, lounges; gymnasia; auditoria; and swimming pools.

   Increasingly, the provision of facilities for a broad organized activities program is becoming accepted as a logical function of the public authorities. District-based facilities of private agencies can provide indoor recreational facilities for social, cultural, and informal educational programs. It is not generally appropriate, however, for the district-based private agencies to provide gymnasia, auditoria, or swimming pools.

2. *Organization of Groups for Program Purposes . . .*

   The responsibility for organizing program groups for activity purposes has increasingly become a function accepted by tax-supported agencies such as school boards and municipal recreation commissions. It is becoming the accepted responsibility of public agencies to provide the basic floor of recreational facilities and services, evenly distributed throughout the area, for the use of all people. It is not the responsibility of the private agency to organize an activities program for the community.

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[8] Roy Sorenson, *Recreation for Everybody,* Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles, January, 1946.

[9] David F. DeMarche, *Recreation for Long Beach,* Community Welfare Council of Long Beach, May, 1948, pp. 6-8.

The responsibility of the private agencies in a community where the public agencies have accepted primary responsibility for the general activities program is to conduct only such activities as are part of an intergroup program, or which serve as a point of contact with potential group members. . . .

The provision of opportunities for group association is both a public and a private agency function. However, because of the necessity of the public authorities for providing and maintaining facilities and operating a large activities program, they are more limited than the private agencies in the organization and conduct of this group program.

3. *Provision of Direction and Leadership . . .*

Of necessity, an organized activities program requires leadership. Playgrounds require supervision, sports call for coaching, informal education and arts and crafts demand instructors. The nature of the activity dictates the type of leadership needed. Inasmuch as a general activities program is principally a public agency function, *so the provision of leadership for these activities is a responsibility of the public authorities.* However, the private agencies in the conduct of a general activities program also must provide leadership for their activities.

Groups organized primarily for group experience rather than for activities per se must have leadership trained in group work methods if results in terms of individual and group development are to be expected. *Both public and private agencies must provide this leadership.* However, the private agencies without the necessity for providing recreation for all can focus attention on the development of groups and the recruiting, training, and supervising of group leaders.

Where group association is for the purpose of social treatment of emotionally and socially maladjusted persons, skillful leadership is needed. *The provision of this leadership* with knowledge of the dynamics of personality, child psychology, group work methods and an understanding of case work, *is primarily a private agency function at present.*

FUTURE OF THE PRIVATE AGENCY

With the increasing activity of the public agencies in the social welfare field, the question of the future of private agencies has been posed anew. Will there be any need for private agency services? Cannot the public agencies do the whole job?

In the light of the tremendous surge of public agency service in the social welfare field since the latter half of the 1930's, private agencies have been forced to re-examine and redefine their roles in the community.

The 1939 Annual Report of the Charity Organization Society of New York City sets forth the altered role of the agency in a statement which begins: "The C.O.S. has been freed by the intervention of the governmental agencies into the field of direct relief to concentrate more fully in the area of prevention." [10] The report stressed the agency's concern in rendering personal service to families and individuals in meeting problems of living and of social relationships. The C.O.S. expressed a special interest in reaching toward the origin of the problems, to forestall them or correct them by early treatment.

The need for agencies to redefine their function was stated clearly by Helen R. Jeter and M. W. Bechelman: "Private social work agencies now offering service that parallels the programs of public agencies should accept the necessity of self-examination to determine whether or not they can still offer a contribution by demonstrating better ways of doing the job, in better leadership that will set standards for public service, or in services to special groups excluded in some way from the public service." [11]

The authors pointed out that progressive private social work should lend the support of its knowledge and experience to all constructive efforts to maintain, expand, and improve the quality of the public social work program. They were not suggesting, however, that private social agencies close their doors and send their staffs to the public agencies. Rather, they were suggesting that the private programs justify their existence on the basis of their quality and their contributions to scientific and professional development. "Those who are critical of private social work," they wrote, "may speak of such development as a 'wholesome deflation'; those who believe in its potentialities may prefer to view it as a 'constructive re-orientation.' " [12]

Since the 1930's, changes have been taking place in the functions of both private and public social welfare agencies. During this period there has been no trend among the private agencies to assume the responsibilities for economic assistance. On the other hand, there has been an increasing trend among the public agencies to expand their conception of service to include the personality needs of clients. Should this trend continue, what is to become of the private agencies in the welfare field? Are private social agencies, especially those dealing with problems of dependency and maladjustment, doomed to extinction?

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[10] Reported in the *New York Times,* April 3, 1939.

[11] Helen R. Jeter and M. W. Bechelman, "Future of the Private Field," *Social Work Today,* May, 1939, pp. 5-7.

[12] *Ibid.*

There are some "social prophets" who predict that the private agencies will eventually pass from the American scene. Even these, however, admit that at present there is so great a need for both public and private agencies that such an event may be in the relatively distant future.

The future of the private agency has been by no means decided. There are persons who forecast a productive future for progressive private agencies which are alert to emerging needs and are elastic enough to meet them quickly and efficiently. Such persons hold it essential to the health of a democratic society that strong voluntary organizations be maintained to provide health, welfare, and recreational services. Professor E. C. Lindeman stated this belief clearly and vigorously: "A society which has completely abandoned all private enterprise, whether it be in business, education, or in social services, cannot any longer lay claim to be a democratic society. A democratic society must remain pluralistic. Where all human activities are subserved within the authority of the state, then the form of the state which emerges is totalitarian, not democratic." [13]

In a time of war between antithetical ideologies, an understanding of the place of voluntary associations in a democratic society is of major importance. Arthur M. Schlesinger states that voluntary organizations "have afforded the people their best schooling in self-government. In these organizations, men learned from youth to counsel together, harmonize differences and obey the majority will. They also learned to conduct most of the major concerns of life, spiritual, economic, political, social, cultural, and recreational. By comparison, the much-

[13] From a speech delivered by E. C. Lindeman at the National Conference of Social Work in Atlantic City in 1948.

vaunted role of the New England town meeting as a seedbed of popular government seems almost negligible."[14]

He likewise points out the fact that totalitarian dictators insure their rise to power by repressing or abolishing political, religious, labor, and other voluntary groups. "The existence of these microcosms of democracy constitute a potential threat they dare not ignore. . . ."[15]

* * *

The increased role of public agency services has made them of especial importance in community organization. Planning and conducting of social welfare services must effectively involve the large volume of services provided under public auspices. Public agency leaders must participate in community organization activities in more significant ways than was necessary in earlier years. Public agency leaders have responsibility not only to co-ordinate public agency services, but also to work with private agency leaders to achieve a balanced, effective total-community plan.

[14] Arthur M. Schlesinger, *Paths to the Present* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949), p. 49.

[15] *Ibid.*, pp. 49-50.

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The Scope and Nature of Community Organization

THE SCOPE of community organization is broad; its content is varied. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the breadth and the nature of this process of planning and organizing various aspects of community life, particularly the provisions for meeting social welfare needs.

Community Organization an Inclusive Process

IN ALL TYPES OF COMMUNITIES

Community organization is necessary in all sizes and types of communities—in hamlets and villages, in towns and cities and metropolitan areas—in primary service communities and in distributing communities, in industrial communities, educational centers, resort towns, and political centers.

Efforts to plan and to organize develop inevitably in all kinds of communities. They are often quite informal in small communities. Community planning and organizing grows out of the very life people live together, whatever the size or type of community it may be. It grows out of their efforts to meet their common needs—for education for their children, for worship, for regulating their life together, for providing necessary common services such as sanitation, protection of property and life.

The process of planning and organizing community life operates in any community, regardless of the presence of social welfare agencies, or professional social workers or special agencies created to further planning and organization of social welfare services.

IN ALL ASPECTS OF COMMUNITY LIFE

Community planning and organizing is an inclusive process. As Wayne McMillen has written, "The community organization process is used, consciously or unconsciously, in many fields of human activity—in politics, in art, in education, in economic life. Wherever individuals and groups seek ways to pool their resources and efforts to achieve an improvement in community life, the community organization process is at work."[1] For example, when a group of people get together to organize a series of community concerts, or parents develop a neighborhood playground for their children, or citizens organize a Museum of Modern Science for their city, the community organization process is being used.

OUTSIDE AS WELL AS INSIDE LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Communities today are greatly influenced by outside forces. Employment in some of their industries may be affected by the amount of oil or coal or steel being produced in another part of the country. The quality of education in a city's schools may be influenced by legislation enacted in the state capital, or by the work of the Office of Education in the Nation's capital. As a group studying the process of community organization of social welfare services has pointed out, ". . . the process of community organization is carried on not only in communities or neighborhoods, or on the local level, but also on a state-wide basis and on a nation-wide basis, or on the state or national levels. An example of the state level is a state department of welfare setting and enforcing standards for the operation of child-caring institutions; and of the national level, the United States Children's Bureau with its field service and its infinitely helpful publications."[2]

RELATED TO SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

The necessity for community organization, to a considerable degree, grows out of the existence of social disorganization.

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[1] Wayne McMillen, *Community Organization for Social Welfare* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), p. 24.

[2] Robert P. Lane and Others, "The Field of Community Organization," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1939), p. 497.

Social disorganization may be defined as a breakdown in the functioning of the established social order, a failure of physical and social forces to function adequately, a decrease in the influence of existing social rules of behavior. Burgess says, "Normally, the processes of disorganization and organization may be thought of as in reciprocal relationship to each other, and as operating in a *moving equilibrium*. . . . So far as disorganization points to reorganization and makes for more efficient adjustment, disorganization must be conceived not as pathological, but as normal."[3]

A number of factors have been identified as leading to social disorganization: culture conflict, as developed by Thomas and Znaniecki, in *The Polish Peasant,* as seen in immigrant communities, where the cultures of the Old World and the New World conflict, particularly in relations between older and younger generations; cultural lag, as illustrated in failure to make adjustments in ethics and morals which result from the adoption of new methods of production and new modes of transportation.

Evidences of social disorganization may be seen in unemployment, poverty, cultural and racial conflict, a high divorce rate, and adult crime and juvenile delinquency.

A pattern of development may often be discerned: (1) people live near each other; they face common needs, develop some organized life together; (2) social disorganization becomes evident in some aspects of their community life; (3) problems become recognized; (4) a multiplicity of organizations come into being, to meet the problems and needs which have been identified; (5) co-ordination becomes necessary, and the process of community organization goes on. This pattern often repeats itself, particularly in times of crises.

The Importance of Planning

The importance of planning may be seen from the very nature of planning itself. Planning is the introduction of orderly thinking into areas formerly ruled by unconsidered decisions. It is the conscious guidance of economic and social life by joint thinking. It takes into account various aspects of the com-

[3] E. W. Burgess, "The Growth of the City," in Robert E. Park, *The City* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925), p. 54.

munity—at its best, *all* of the community. It involves choices, priorities for action. "Planning aims at the optimum use of resources and the rational integration of community life." [4]

Considerable hesitancy—even some fear—of planning is evident. Frank L. Weil says, "Social welfare agencies, at times, fear planning. They fear loss of freedom. . . . They fear losing their place in the sun, their autonomy, or their freedom of initiative. There would be less fear of planning were it understood that *planning means exploring and studying together co-operatively: that it means no more loss of freedom than comes from ordinary group restraints. . . .*" [5]

The urgent necessity for planning of social welfare services today is well stated by Weil: "The very fact that more funds are needed, that costs are going up, emphasizes the necessity of co-operative social welfare planning to get at the cause of our ills, to find the appropriate place for government, and to learn better how to obtain public understanding of the need for support of voluntary causes. Planning is desperately needed because life has become so complex." [6]

Planning is a step-by-step process. It is not necessarily a complete blueprint for action. Planning may be focused on a small segment of a community's life. It may involve only a limited course of action, to be tested by its results, and changed as it is further used.

The limits to planning, especially for relationships among people, must be recognized. Any situation involves a set of complicated facts; it involves attitudes and emotions and prejudices of people. Life cannot be reduced to blueprints, to rigid schedules. All planning must be kept flexible.

Planning, to be effective in helping people to become more competent in managing their affairs, must be democratic. The methods used are likely to be as important as the goals. ". . . we tend to talk a lot about democracy in planning. What we mean by that is not always clear; but it somehow connotes that anyone who has a contribution to make has an opportunity to make it; that all genuinely good ideas are cordially welcomed and their sources acknowledged. . . . The elements of democracy seem to me to consist of hospitality to all positive and creative ideas as plans are taking shape, and careful consideration of them after they are in form to be considered. Widespread participation in the decisions to put them into effect is essential. . . ."[7]

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[4] Louis Wirth, "Human Ecology," *American Journal of Sociology,* May, 1945, pp. 483-488.

[5] Frank L. Weil, "Co-operative Planning for Social Welfare," *The Social Welfare Forum,* Official Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work, 1950 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1950), p. 164.

[6] *Ibid.,* pp. 166-167.

Focus on Social Welfare Needs

Although the process of community planning does go on outside as well as inside the general area of social work—by such bodies as chambers of commerce, by industries and businesses, by churches and federations of churches, and by political parties and sections of government, the focus of this book is on the planning and organizing of over-all social welfare services of communities. Community welfare services have become very numerous; a great number of specialized services and agencies have developed. Many of these different services deal with the same individuals and groups. Their work must be fitted together intelligently. The emphasis in community organization of social welfare services is on the adequacy of services in relation to need, and on co-ordination, balance, and effectiveness.

What Community Organization Is

A great many efforts have been made in recent years to define and describe community planning and organization.

Dwight Sanderson and Robert A. Polson have stated that the aim of community organization

> . . . is to develop relationships among groups and individuals that will enable them to act together in creating and maintaining facilities and agencies through which they may realize their highest values in the common welfare of all members of the community.[8]

More concise, though similarly broad in scope, is the definition of Paul M. Limbert:

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[7] Neva R. Deardorff, "Planning for Youth," *Survey Midmonthly*, April, 1944, Vol. 80, p. 124.

[8] Dwight Sanderson and Robert A. Polson, *Rural Community Organization* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1939), p. 76.

> Community organization is a process of developing relationships among individuals and groups that will enable them to plan and act together to bring about improvement in some phase of community life.[9]

Wayne McMillen emphasizes unity of purpose, when he describes community organization as

> . . . deliberately directed effort to assist groups in attaining unity of purpose and action . . . in behalf of either general or specific objectives.[10]

Community organization for social welfare has been described, appropriately, in more limited terms. The six local discussion groups which undertook in 1938–1939 to evaluate the processes and objectives of community organization decided, in the words of their summarizing committee, that community organization of social welfare is

> . . . a type of social work concerned with efforts to direct social resources effectively toward the specific or total welfare needs of any geographical area. . . .[11]

Community organization for social welfare was described by these same groups as

> . . . the process of dealing with individuals or groups who are concerned or may become concerned with social welfare services or objectives, for the purpose of influencing the volume of such services, improving their quality or distribution. . . .[12]

The aim of the process has been described as "improvement in the coverage and quality of service to clients.[13] Among the many descriptions, definitions, and statements of aims and objectives, the following definition has apparently won general acceptance:

> Community organization for social welfare . . . is the process of bringing about and maintaining adjustment between social

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[9] Paul M. Limbert, unpublished manuscript.

[10] Wayne McMillen, "Community Organization in Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1947,* Russell Kurtz, Editor (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947), p. 110.

[11] Lane and Others, *op. cit.,* p. 498.

[12] *Ibid.*

[13] *Ibid.,* p. 497.

> welfare needs and social welfare resources in a geographical area or a functional field.[14]

Community organization, according to another recent statement of the process

> . . . involves the articulation of problems and needs, the determination of solutions, and the formulation and conduct of a plan of action.[15]

Community organization has been quite properly emphasized as a "process" by many writers. This process involves:

> . . . (1) steps and procedures in the "problem to solution" cycle; (2) factors that affect the participation of individuals and groups and therefore the process itself; (3) [a definable] role of the professional workers and [definite] knowledge and skill that they need in order to do their job effectively.[16]

The objectives and the methods of community organization for social welfare must be consistent, as the late Kenneth M. L. Pray insisted, with the purpose of social work itself. He concluded that community organization practice is social work practice when the three following conditions are met:

> first, if and when their primary concerns and objectives relate always to the development and guidance of the process by which people find satisfying and fruitful social relationships . . .
>
> second, if and when these objectives are sought consistently through the realization of a democratic philosophy and faith which respects the right and the responsibility of communities, as of individuals, to create their own satisfying relationships, and to use those relationships to their own chosen ends; and
>
> finally, if and when the basic processes, methods, and skills that are demanded and employed in practice are those that inhere in the worker's capacity to initiate and sustain a helping, not a controlling, relationship with individuals and groups. . . .[17]

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[14] Arthur Dunham, "The Community Organization Worker," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1948), p. 162.

[15] Mildred C. Barry, "Community Organization Process," *Social Work Journal,* October, 1950, Vol. XXXI, No. 4, p. 157.

[16] *Ibid.*

[17] Kenneth M. L. Pray, "When Is Community Organization Social Work Practice?" *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947), pp. 203-204.

THE FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

The six functions of community organization, to be dealt with more extensively in later chapters, have been stated as "(1) fact finding—laying an adequate factual foundation for sound planning and action; (2) program development; (3) establishment and improvement of standards; (4) co-ordination and facilitation of intergroup relationships; (5) education and public relations; and (6) enlistment of adequate public support and participation."[18]

Why More Effective Community Organization?

Why is more effective community organization for social welfare needed in most communities? The reasons are many: inadequate services of certain kinds, imbalance, duplication, and competition in some cases.

The necessity for more effective planning and organization of social welfare services may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. *Unmet needs* exist in most communities. Certain segments of the population may be inadequately served. Certain kinds of services may be inadequate.
2. *Needs for services change as communities change.* All communities are undergoing constant change—some more rapidly than others. More health services—different health services—more recreation for children or for young adults—more child care or family services—needs for such services change constantly, and services must be adjusted.
3. *Standards of service are inadequate,* in some communities, and in some agencies in most communities.
4. Personnel in agencies is in some communities *not adequately trained or experienced.*
5. *"Vested interests" develop in many communities,* in fields of service (as in hospitals or family services or recreation) and in individual agencies.
6. *More effective joint approaches to certain problems become necessary,* as in a congested city block where practically all the families are known to and served by a number of different social agencies.

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[18] Dunham, *op. cit.,* p. 163.

A Common Responsibility

Everyone concerned with any aspect of social welfare must be concerned with community planning and organization. It is indeed "everybody's business." It is a responsibility of board members and other lay people, and of professional social workers. It is a concern of board and staff members directly related to the planning and co-ordinating and joint financing agencies—the chests and the councils—and it is the concern of board and staff members in the direct-service agencies. It is the concern of people related to public, tax-supported agencies, and of people in voluntary or private agencies. It is the responsibility of all citizens, contributors, taxpayers, men and women in the various professions, industrial workers, and business employees.

The idea of "primary" responsibility and "secondary" responsibility has grown up in some circles. It undoubtedly is true that community organization is carried on by some organizations as a *primary* function—i.e., by organizations established for the express purpose of carrying it on; and by some other organizations as a *secondary* function—i.e., by organizations established for the express purpose of carrying on some other process of social work; but such a concept can lead to unsound interpretations.

Leadership for the community organization process is of course essential. Competent, well-trained people must have time to make the process work. "Enablers" are needed to facilitate relationships among leaders of participating agencies and other community groups, to recognize problems before they become acute, to assemble and analyze needed facts, to bring necessary groups together, to develop consensus of judgment, to adopt plans, to secure necessary resources of leadership and funds, to appraise results together. Central planning and joint financing bodies are needed; they must have able leadership.

But the direct-service agencies and their leaders also have an indispensable role to play. They are directly involved in every one of the functions of community organization. The functions will be examined briefly to note how direct-service agencies are involved in them.

1. *Fact finding and program development:* Every agency, whether it be a child care or family agency, a health agency, or a leisure-time service agency—a public agency or a private agency working in a state, a region, or the nation—must do some fact finding; it must also utilize facts assembled by others if it is to plan its services wisely. It must have an adequate factual foundation for developing its own program and for participating in broader community program development.
2. *Establishing and improving standards:* Local direct-service agencies and their national organizations have made major contributions to standard setting. They now share this responsibility with central planning bodies.
3. *Co-ordinating and facilitating intergroup relationships:* Consent is essential to democratic relationships. Co-ordination cannot be imposed. Leadership for intergroup relationships is an especial responsibility of workers in interagency bodies. But ready participation and leadership from the participating agencies is also an essential element for effective co-operative activity.
4. *Education and public relations and enlistment of adequate public support and participation:* Interpretation to enlist adequate public support must emphasize the wide range and varied services needed by the total community or the nation. But it must also be focused on specific needs and individual agencies. The problems of interpretation in the "package" appeal have become increasingly evident. Intelligent public understanding and vital public support cannot be developed solely around general slogans such as "support vital community services." They must catch up the warm interest people have for children, for youth, for the aged; they must capitalize on people's concern for hospital and medical services, for services for the needy and the handicapped. Individual operating agencies must carry their share of responsibility for interpretation and enlistment of public support, both for their own services and for other parts of the community program of services. Interagency bodies and individual direct-service agencies must together carry these vital community organization responsibilities.

Everyone concerned with more adequate community life must participate in the planning and co-ordination of social welfare services. The process cannot be effective without any of the necessary participants. No one group has a "corner" on community organization responsibilities; no group can consistently evade them. Considerable restlessness and serious tensions have developed between operating agencies and central planning and financing bodies. A more fundamental understanding of the nature of co-operative relationships, more planning on the basis of related and reliable facts, and greater skill in co-operative, democratic relationships are needed.

* * *

Community planning and community organization are an inclusive process which relates to all aspects of community life, local, state-wide, and national. It focuses particularly on community social welfare needs and provisions for meeting them. More effective planning and organization are needed because of continuous community changes, because of unmet needs and because better balanced, more effective services are urgently needed. Effective co-ordination of services depends on the joint efforts of all related groups.

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A Brief Historical Background of Community Organization

COMMUNITY PLANNING and community organization are, in a broad sense, as old as organized community life. Wherever people live together, some planning and organization become necessary. For example, in the American pioneer communities, danger to life made planning for common security necessary. Government was established and, as community life became more complicated, it took on added functions. As the economic, political, social, and religious life developed further, more organization became necessary.

Early Efforts at Community Organization of Welfare Services

The concern of individuals and groups to aid their neighbors and other people in their community who needed help soon became formalized into societies and organizations. The number of such societies increased in larger communities, and it became necessary for them to work together. Some concern for more effective co-ordination of work probably preceded the adoption of the Elizabethan Poor Law in England. One of the very first efforts in community planning for welfare services in the United States was recorded by Robert W. DeForest. "By 1840 there were over thirty relief societies in New York City," he wrote, "working with very little if any knowledge of each other's plans. This . . . led a few years later to the organization of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. . . . This new association insisted upon co-operation with other agencies. . . ."[1]

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[1] Robert W. DeForest, "What Is Charity Organization?" *The Charities Review*, November, 1891, Vol. 1, No. 1, p. 4.

The charity organization societies were one of the important forerunners of modern community social welfare planning bodies. They were first organized in London in 1869 as an attempt to eliminate indiscriminate almsgiving by the existing relief agencies and to organize the resources for the maximum benefit for needy people. The Charity Organization Society movement was quickly transplanted to the United States. The first one was organized in Buffalo in 1877, after unsatisfactory experiments at clearinghouse registration plans at Germantown, Pennsylvania, Boston, and New York. The Boston, Philadelphia, and New Haven societies were organized in 1878. Cincinnati, Brooklyn, and Indianapolis followed in 1879.[2]

At the outset, the charity organization societies did not plan to give direct service to clients; their task was to work with the already existing social agencies. Their first purpose was stated as "co-operation between all charitable agencies of a given locality, and the best co-ordination of their efforts."[3] Other stated aims were these: accurate knowledge of all cases; prompt and adequate relief for all that should have it; "exposure of impostors and prevention of willful idleness";[4] prevention of pauperism; and collection and diffusion of knowledge regarding the administration of charities.

The emphases on co-operation and co-ordination, on fact finding and exchange of information and experience, of working on underlying causes of social problems have been retained in modern social welfare planning bodies.

The charity organization societies, however, in their concern that prompt and adequate relief be given, soon began to provide direct service to clients. They also organized a number of other activities—employment bureaus, day nurseries, wood yards and others—many of which later were taken over by specialized agencies which operated independently. A multiplicity of agencies developed in many communities and the resulting confusion brought with it a recognition of the necessity for co-ordination. The direct services probably limited the original C.O.S. co-ordinating role.

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[2] A. G. Warner, S. A. Queen, and E. B. Harper, *American Charities and Social Work* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co.), fourth edition, pp. 203-214.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 207.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 207.

Another important early development was the Philadelphia Assembly for Organizing Charity, composed of representatives of different relief societies. This body, organized in 1879, met monthly for a number of years to discuss charitable and other community problems and became an influential forerunner of the council of social agencies movement.

Several other important early efforts at community welfare planning and co-ordination should be noted. The Social Service Exchange, first organized in 1879 by the Associated Services of Boston, served as a clearinghouse for all cases given relief by different agencies. The settlement house movement undertook to promote acquaintance and co-operative action in disadvantaged areas of cities. Settlements became interested in all types of problems—housing, food, medical care, sanitation, education, recreation. They brought people together who were concerned about such problems and worked with many different organizations to try to solve them. Separate organizations developed around some of the problems in which settlement workers aroused interest, and co-ordination became increasingly necessary.

Community Welfare Councils

Community welfare councils, first organized as councils of social agencies, have become an important means of planning for and co-ordinating social welfare services.

The first councils of social agencies were organized in Pittsburgh and Milwaukee in 1909. Similar councils now exist in 600 or more different communities.[5]

Growth of councils was slow. Up to 1917, only seven cities had established city-wide councils. America's entry into World War I, with its need for increased welfare services and for co-ordination, gave striking impetus to the movement. By 1923, councils of social agencies were functioning in twenty of the larger cities and in many smaller communities. Today, almost every city over 100,000 in population has some type of community-wide council for planning and co-ordinating its health and social welfare services.

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[5] See Rudolph T. Dandstedt, "Councils in Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1951*, Margaret B. Hodges, Editor (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), pp. 136-142.

The depression years of the 1930's stimulated community planning of social welfare services. Needs were urgent and voluntary funds were limited. Governmental programs expanded greatly, and many privately-supported agencies shifted the emphasis of their services, as from relief to help with other family and personal problems. During the years of World War II, defense councils and war-service councils were organized in hundreds of communities. Many of these councils became community welfare councils in the postwar years.

In the early years of development, it was believed that the work of co-ordination could be carried on with a minimum of overhead expense and without paid leadership. Today most such councils are directed by employed personnel. Experience has shown that the activities of these planning bodies cannot be carried on without competent staff service. The complicated nature of the task and the skill and training needed were described by Arthur Dunham at the National Conference of Social Work in 1948.[6]

The community welfare councils now operating in the United States vary considerably in function and structure. They do, however, have certain characteristics in common:

1. Membership is voluntary and it usually consists of representatives of the health and social welfare agencies, other community organizations and other interested individuals;
2. The general purpose is to meet the needs of people for good health, social and economic adjustment, and recreation—as adequately and efficiently as possible;
3. The program consists of planning and co-ordination rather than direct operation of services.

The need for sound planning and effective co-ordination of social welfare services has grown out of the confusing and overlapping of services which has developed from the current multiplicity of agencies. The evidence of the interrelatedness of social problems and services in the St. Paul Family Unit

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[6] Arthur Dunham, "The Job of the Community Organization Worker," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1948), p. 163.

Study[7] illustrates the urgent necessity for effective co-ordination. The major classifications used in the analysis were: dependency, maladjustment, ill health, and recreational need. The cases included all the families and individuals in the November, 1948, services load of 108 tax-supported and chest and nonchest agencies.

An unduplicated count of 41,471 families was secured from the 55,841 schedules returned. These families represented 134,873 persons out of the city's population of approximately 350,000. It has been conservatively estimated that in a 12-month period the 108 agencies reached into 70,000 of the 105,000 Ramsey County families. Within the total group of families requiring services, there were 6,466 multiproblem families; that is, families with a combination of dependency and ill health or maladjustment problems. These families absorbed 68 per cent of all financial assistance given, 46 per cent of all the health services provided, and 55 per cent of all maladjustment services utilized.

The data on recreational services showed that 11.7 per cent of the families with maladjustment problems were reported as having members in recreation agencies. Of those with ill health, 10.5 per cent had members participating in recreational programs, but only 2.5 per cent of those of the dependency group. Neighborhood-centered leisure-time programs involved a larger percentage of the families with economic, health, and maladjustment problems than did the city-wide building-centered and non-building-centered programs.

These data clearly demonstrate the interrelatedness of both problems and services and suggest possible new alignments of agencies in terms of functions, structural organization, and working relationships—a community organization responsibility.

Federated Financing

The development of federated financing has been a significant factor in community planning and organization of social welfare services. The first such effort occurred in Liverpool,

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[7] The study was directed by Community Research Associates of New York. The city of St. Paul was selected as the laboratory for a three-year research project in community social welfare planning, beginning in 1948.

England, in 1869.[8] In the United States, the first federated-financing plan developed in Denver in 1888, when fifteen or sixteen relief agencies united their appeals for contributions. In 1895, the Jewish Charities of Boston federated. Another financial federation, called Allied Charities, was organized in Elmira, New York, in 1910.

Early in 1900, the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce assumed responsibility for endorsing social welfare organizations seeking funds in that city. This endorsement process made necessary some evaluation of the competence of the various agencies to provide service, of their co-operation with other agencies and of their methods of collecting and accounting for money. As a result, the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy was organized in 1913, with a board of thirty members, ten of whom were chosen by the member agencies. Fifty-seven agencies joined the federation in the first year. The Cleveland Welfare Council was organized the following year and later merged with the Federation in the present Welfare Federation of Cleveland.

Federated financing expanded greatly after World War I, stimulated by the many united local campaigns for the national United War Work Fund. A period of expansion in the number of chests occurred from 1921 to 1924. Another period of great growth occurred between 1929 and 1931, when a great many local relief campaigns were conducted. World War II, with the development of war chests in almost every city in the country, ushered in the greatest period of expansion in the federated-financing movement.

By 1950, there were over 1,300 community chest campaigns reported as compared to 240 in 1925.

State-wide and National Social Welfare Planning

Significant steps have been taken in recent years toward state-wide and national planning of social welfare services.

The oldest voluntary state-wide organization for health and welfare is the State Charities' Aid Association founded in New York in 1872. It has combined certain functional operating responsibilities with research, education, and promotion. The Public Charities' Association of Pennsylvania has influenced legislation and administration relating to public welfare, public health, mental hygiene, and penal affairs.

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[8] Fred K. Hoehler, "Community Chests," *Social Work Year Book, 1949,* Margaret B. Hodges, Editor (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1949), pp. 122-129.

State conferences of social work, first organized in Wisconsin in 1881, provided opportunities for discussion of social welfare problems and methods.

Different patterns of state-wide organizations have been emerging in recent years. The Ohio Citizens' Council for Health and Welfare, and the New Hampshire Citizens' Council for the General Welfare are citizens' organizations for planning and promotion. The Michigan Welfare League promotes legislation and public education on social welfare, provides consultant and advisory service to local communities and chest and council organizations, and holds state-wide and regional social welfare conferences. The Massachusetts Community Organization Service provides advisory service to communities regarding sound, well-rounded social welfare programs, gives assistance in establishing community chests and councils, and promotes better co-ordination of state-wide agency service, both tax and privately supported.[9]

National planning of health and welfare services has been fostered by a number of groups. The National Health Council was organized in 1921. The National Social Work Council came into being in 1923, after regular meetings of national agency executives which began in 1920. During depression years, a national Committee on Care of Transient and Homeless stimulated co-operative work among a number of organizations. The American War-Community Services, the Associated Youth-Serving Organizations and the United Service Organizations, Inc., developed during World War II, brought a number of national organizations into closer working relationships.[10]

The reorganization of the National Social Work Council into the National Social Welfare Assembly in 1945 marked a significant step forward in national planning of health and welfare agencies. The Associated Youth-Serving Organizations became

[9] Hugh R. Jackson, "State-wide Organization in Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1949, ibid.*, pp. 506-512.

[10] Ray Johns, *The Co-operative Process Among National Social Agencies* (New York: Association Press, 1946).

the Youth Division of the Assembly, and other councils also became related to it. The United Defense Fund, Inc., organized late in 1950, the reorganization of the United Service Organizations, Inc. (U.S.O.), and the organization of The United Defense Community Services, Inc., are recent joint efforts on the national social welfare scene.

* * *

Community planning, co-ordination, and joint financing of social welfare services have developed out of the increasing interdependence of social welfare needs and the increasing complexity of the specialized services organized to meet them. Community councils, community chests, and state and national planning and financing bodies are of such importance in community organization for social welfare that they will be considered in greater detail.

8

Community Councils and Community Organization

THE DEVELOPMENT and growth of the community council movement testifies to the consciousness of communities to the need for co-ordination of social welfare services. Not only the multiplicity of needs but their ever-changing nature calls for co-operative planning. Much of this planning is carried on in community welfare councils, often called Councils of Social Agencies, Social Planning Councils, or Community Councils. The community welfare council has become an important instrument in the promotion of orderly development in the various services to meet community welfare needs. It is necessary that all persons concerned with community organization—board and staff members of direct-service agencies, as well as of chests and councils—be familiar with council structure and membership, and with its program.

City-wide Councils

COUNCIL STRUCTURE [1]

The work of a council is carried on primarily through divisions and committees organized around the broad fields of service, such as health, family and child welfare, and recreation. Each division has a membership composed of agencies and individuals especially interested in a particular field of service. In the larger cities these divisions may also be known as councils—such as a Health Council. Though having a measure of autonomy they operate within the structure of the over-all Community Welfare Council. It is in these divisions and their committees that much of the council's work of co-ordination and planning is accomplished. Certain problems coming before councils cut across functional lines and require special committees directly under the governing board or executive committee of the council. In small communities with limited staff all of the work may be carried on by the board and special committees. Some large cities which have extended the scope of the council to the metropolitan area have found it advisable to establish subcouncils distributed geographically—so as to permit a larger number of people a voice in the planning of services.

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[1] For detailed information on the organization of a council, see *Teamwork in Our Town Through a Community Welfare Council,* Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., New York, 1950.

Councils which operate common services such as a social service exchange, a volunteer bureau, public relations, or research, create administrative departments to operate these services. As a rule the services have their own advisory committees and where finances permit, special staff is provided. Quite often the research and public relations services are carried on jointly by chests and councils (with the organizations sharing staff services and office facilities).

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE CHEST AND THE COUNCIL

Inasmuch as federated financing of voluntary agencies is closely related to the work of the community welfare councils, co-operation between the two bodies is natural and desirable. It is a generally accepted principle that councils have some formal relationship with the chest, especially at the point of budgeting. In some cities the relationship between the two organizations is so close that they operate as parts of a single organization—a community chest and council. A single executive may serve both organizations. In other communities, the community chest and the community welfare council may share staff services and office facilities; may have joint committees and interlocking directorates, and other interlocking devices.

Regardless of whether the council operates separately or is closely related to the chest, experience has shown that it cannot operate effectively without competent staff assistance.

COUNCIL MEMBERSHIP

The basic membership of many councils is the body composed of delegates from all governmental and voluntary agencies in the fields of health, welfare, and recreation. In addition, interested citizens are added as delegates-at-large. Ideally, the membership should include all those persons interested in the over-all welfare program of the community.

The size of the community may to some extent influence the degree of inclusiveness of membership. In the smaller cities, with fewer agencies and thus a smaller number of delegates, the membership tends to be broad and all-inclusive. In addition to the representatives from the operating agencies, organizations with an expressed interest in the social welfare of the community are represented in council affairs. In larger communities, council membership may be restricted to representatives of the public and voluntary agencies offering direct services. This type of council is properly named Council of Social Agencies.

Some councils restrict membership even further, and subject agencies to strict standards as a requisite for membership. In one small New England community, membership in the council of social agencies is restricted to delegates from voluntary chest-supported agencies, and the non-chest voluntary agencies as well as the public health, welfare, and recreation agencies, are excluded. However, the trend in councils in general is to broaden the base of participation to include citizens-at-large and representatives from organizations interested in the community's welfare program but not offering direct services.

The term Community Welfare Council reflects this more inclusive membership.

The development of the concept of a more inclusive council membership is illustrated by the following case study:

> In the fall of 1921 the Community Welfare Association, then incorporated as the Community Chest of Springfield, Massachusetts, Inc., organized the Springfield Council of Social Agencies.[2] The purpose of the council was to promote co-operation among social agencies, both public and private; to study community needs and to bring about welfare improvements among social agencies operating in the Community Chest area; to offer an opportunity to lay and professional workers to assist one another in the improvement of aims, purposes, and methods; to furnish information to all persons interested in the needs and accomplishments of the agencies; and

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[2] Council of Social Agencies, mimeograph report, January 2, 1941, p. 1.

to bring a real understanding of the needs and problems of social work through publicity and other vehicles of interpretation to all citizens in the population.[3] Twenty years later the Council of Social Agencies took stock of its accomplishments and set forth its strengths and weaknesses. The latter were stated as follows: [4]

1. The council lacks aggressiveness in exerting its influence in situations which are properly within its province.
2. The interpretive program of the council is weak. Far too little understanding and far too much misunderstanding of its purposes and aims.
3. The existing by-laws of the council do not provide for the membership of social workers.
4. There should be a closer working relationship between the council and the budget committee of the Community Chest.

The *Eugene A. Dexter Fund Survey* of 1947 underlined certain weaknesses in the structure and function of the community social agencies and established the need for reorganization. The survey pointed up the need for an effective co-ordinating and planning body if the recommendations of the survey were to be carried out.[5] The report stated that the council appeared merely as an advisory body to the board of trustees of the chest, a serious underevaluation of the role the council ought to play in the life of the community. It further criticized the council for not making formal provisions to guarantee representation of the planning interest on the governing board of the chest, to share in the budgeting process, or in the work of any of the standing committees of the chest.[6] The council was accused of having a timid statement of purpose, putting too much emphasis on agencies, too little on community needs; stressing existing services rather than the bold function of planning. "It bespeaks a desire to conserve and perpetuate what the community has, rather than to seek for and find new and better ways of accomplishing desirable results." [7]

Reorganization of the council began with the appointment of a joint chest-council study committee in December, 1947, and was completed with the adoption of a new council constitution at the annual meeting in May, 1948. The council is now a "participating agency" in the chest. It is constitutionally separate, independent, and autonomous, as are all Red Feather agencies. However, because of the interdependence of planning, budgeting, and finance, there is *joint administration* and *joint committee work* at several important points. The new council recognizes that it stands outside the entire field of health, welfare, and recreation services, both public and private, and that, as the sole interagency-planning device, it occupies a unique and most important place in the life of the community.

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[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 2-3.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[5] Robert P. Lane and Others, *Eugene A. Dexter Fund Survey* (Springfield, Massachusetts: The Community Council of Springfield, 1947), p. 112.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

The change in emphasis in the purpose of the council and the broadening of representation is illustrated in the following material quoted from the new council constitution:

> PURPOSE—
>
> The purpose of the Community Council is to engage in a progressive program of planning and action designed to result in the orderly and balanced development of health, welfare, and recreational services, both voluntary or private and official or public, based on an efficient use of community resources and designed to meet the needs of citizens resident in the area served
>
> —by co-operative and continuous planning through research, discussion, conference, and education;
>
> —by co-ordinating the health, welfare, and recreation services of agencies and civic organizations to prevent unwarranted duplication of effort;
>
> —by stimulating the development of progressively higher standards of social work;
>
> —by creating an informed public opinion regarding both public and private social agencies and the public's responsibilities and opportunities in relation to those services.
>
> MEMBERSHIP
>
> SECTION 1. The Community Council shall be composed of individuals representing all aspects of community activity and special interest in health, welfare, and recreational programs or services.
>
> SECTION 2. The members of the Community Council shall be:
>
> A. Two individuals chosen by each social agency, each department of government or other organization having primary responsibility for extending one or more health, welfare, or recreational services to the community; one of whom shall be a layman, preferably the president or chairman of the board, and the other the paid executive, if any.

B. Two individuals chosen by each civic organization, which conducts, as part of its activity, service programs or projects in the field of health, welfare, or recreation, one of whom shall be the chairman, or other officer responsible for such service program or project.

C. Two individuals each from American International and Springfield College and from the Jewish Community Council, the Council of Churches, and from the Roman Catholic Church. One individual from each religious organization named should be a layman and the other a member of the clergy.

D. Individuals, not otherwise council members, who may be members of the executive board, members of joint chest-council committees, members of standing committees, members of central service committees, chairmen of special committees and section members, during their term of office, committee or section membership.

E. Individuals to a number not exceeding 20 per cent of the foregoing (A, B, C, and D), who are interested in the purposes of the council and who represent cultural, economic, and civic interests, shall be elected to membership in the council at the annual meeting from nominations presented by the membership committee and from the floor.

F. Members of all council committees and subcommittees not otherwise provided for above shall automatically become associate members of the Community Council. Any person interested in the purposes of the Community Council who applies for membership may become an associate member of the council. Associate members have all the privileges of membership excepting the power to vote.

SECTION 3. Membership in the Community Council shall be for one year beginning and ending with the annual meeting. Persons who become members of the council during the year shall retain membership to the next annual meeting.[8]

To signify this breadth of purpose and community participation the name *The Community Council—for Health, Welfare, and Recreation* was given to the new co-ordinating and planning body.

A more inclusive membership brings to the planning process a wide variety of points of view, which must be synthesized if co-operative planning is to become effective.

[8] *The Council Constitution,* The Community Council of Springfield, Massachusetts (amended May 15, 1950), pp. 1-2.

FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNITY COUNCILS

The basic function of the community welfare council is to provide a medium for the planning process. To achieve this purpose, councils perform a number of specific functions. These may differ from council to council, but despite these variations there are some commonly found activities.[9]

1. *Co-ordination of Activities.* Councils provide opportunities through committees, case conferences, and joint projects, for members to come together for the purpose of becoming acquainted, sharing information, planning, and acting together. These councils serve as clearinghouses on information and suggestions for new services or changes in existing services. This type of clearance tends to align new or projected services with actual needs in the community.
2. *Improving the Quality of Service.* A better balance between community needs and community resources may be achieved by improving the quality of existing services. This stepping up of quality may be achieved through educational and training institutes for lay and professional workers; studies of personnel practices, budgeting, reporting; development and application of higher standards to selection and training of personnel, agency management, and program services.
3. *Fact Finding.* Any sound planning must rest on factual information. One of the tasks of the council is the continuous and systematic gathering of facts about the community, its needs, and its services. These facts, to be of use, must be analyzed, and their implications for community planning identified. In addition to the routine work of gathering pertinent data, special studies of problems and administrative studies of agencies may be undertaken. Occasionally the council embarks on an over-all community study or survey. In these larger studies, which may involve a single functional field, such as recreation, or the

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[9] Adapted from the list of functions suggested by Merrill F. Krughoff, "Councils in Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1949,* Margaret B. Hodges, Editor (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1949), pp. 151-152.

total health and welfare field, outside help in the form of specialists or consultants may be utilized.

4. *Joint Action.* The facts provide the working material out of which decisions are reached on the course of action necessary to meet the need or solve the problem. It is important that the action decided upon be the result of joint effort on the part of the interested individuals and organizations. Joint action is also required for putting the agreed-upon program into effect.
5. *Common Services.* Though councils do not and should not offer direct services to individuals, except on rare occasions, they do operate common services which accrue to the benefit of the individual agencies and ultimately to their members and clients. The social service exchange is one of the oldest and best known common services. More recent services include the central volunteer bureau, the central information service, and joint publicity programs.
6. *Publicity and Interpretation.* An important function of the council is to interpret to the public community welfare needs on the one hand, and on the other hand, the way in which the health and welfare agencies are attempting to cope with them. This function is performed in various ways: publicity through press and radio, speakers' bureaus, distribution and interpretation of studies, public meetings, and other channels.

STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS OF COUNCILS

Participation in the council is voluntary. Such a body has no authority over its members. It is viewed as a group which works at common problems by the conference method, action depending upon agreement among the members. This concept presents certain dilemmas. It presupposes that all are "men of good will," desirous of working together for the good of the community. In the council there are the true co-operators who are willing to sacrifice some of their agency's independence for the community good, and who will enter into matters of co-ordination and planning genuinely. However, there are those, too, who "dare not be left out" but who come in with serious reservations and possibly fear and insecurity.

Councils in general operate on a delegate basis, with each delegate entitled to one vote. Inasmuch as the voluntary agencies tend to outnumber greatly the public agencies, the influence of the voluntary agencies is often unduly weighted. This factor, coupled with the fact that the original council of social agencies constituted a private agency bloc, has tended to give the public agencies the feeling that these councils are "not for them." One of the great weaknesses of the councils has been their limited ability to involve the public agencies in a significant manner. True community planning cannot afford to ignore or omit the pubilic agencies, who provide the largest volume of service and spend by far the largest amount of money for welfare services. An analysis of the expenditures for health and welfare services in 29 urban areas in 1946 reveals that 55 per cent of the welfare dollar comes from public funds as against 6.1 per cent from community chests and 4.2 per cent from other contributions.[10] The remainder comes from payments for service and other receipts. Thus, in the over-all picture, large public assistance expenditures dwarf the role of contributions.

One of the weaknesses grows out of this expenditure picture. Councils have not received financial support commensurate with the task for which they are organized, namely, co-ordination and planning of the community's total health and welfare program. This is due in part to the general tendency to consider the budgets of the councils in relation to the amount raised in chest campaigns rather than to the total expenditures for welfare services in the community. This association of the council with the community chest in itself is significant and represents a weakness. Many citizens make no distinction between these two bodies. Confusion of function between the federated financing machinery for a number of voluntary agencies and the co-ordinating and planning body for all the health and welfare agencies unfortunately extends beyond the average citizen and has found lodgment in the minds of the officers and professional staff of various welfare agencies. This weakness must be recognized and dealt with, if councils are to become effective community-wide, inclusive co-ordinating and planning bodies for health, welfare, and recreation services.

These weaknesses give rise to the question of whether councils are due to be supplanted by a new approach, much as the council supplanted the Charity Organization Society. In the Los Angeles recreation survey of 1945, it was recognized that the task of co-ordinating the recreational services of the various public and voluntary agencies in the greater Los Angeles area was a task of immense magnitude and beyond the ability of the Welfare Council. To cope with this complex problem, the survey suggested a design for planning and joint action. The following material describes the major features of the scheme:

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[10] See *Expenditures for Community Health and Welfare* (Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., New York, 1946).

> The development of a comprehensive community recreation program is dependent upon the extent to which all organized forces in the community, having as their major functions the provision and direction of leisure-time recreation and group programs, are brought into these continuing processes. This participation should allow for freedom of action of all concerned, disciplined only to the extent that an orderly plan for the utilization of the community's total resources may be accepted as desirable.
>
> To achieve continuous, responsible, and inclusive planning and joint action, the planning must be done by the board officers responsible for policies, by the technicians' drawing plans, and by the executives in charge of operations. These three groups need to plan continuously.
>
> A Community Recreation Policies Committee should be formed, composed of the chairman or president (preferably) or a member of the board, to be named by each of the public boards or commissions controlling policies in the field of recreation (the City Park Board, the City Playground and Recreation Commission, the County Board of Education, the City Board of Education, and the largest of the separate outlying municipal recreation committees); the chairmen of the two public planning agencies (the Regional Planning Commission and the City Planning Commission); and equal number of presidents or board representatives of private agencies to be selected by the private agencies through the Welfare Council; and the chairman of the Department of District Planning of the Welfare Council.
>
> The Recreation Policies Committee should serve under the joint sponsorship of the Board of Supervisors of the County of Los Angeles, the Mayor and City Council of the City of Los Angeles, the Los Angeles City Board of Education, the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles, and the Los Angeles Community Welfare Federation; and all the reports, findings and recommendations of

> the Recreation Policies Committee should be submitted to each of the sponsoring organizations.
>
> The chairman of the Recreational Policies Committee should be an outstanding citizen of the community. An executive director to the committee should be employed by the Welfare Council to provide staff service to the committee.[11]

In addition to the Recreational Policies Committee, the plan proposed two technical subcommittees, one on physical facilities and one on program.

> The purpose of the technical staff subcommittee on Physical Facilities is to provide a central medium where these designers and supervisors of construction may be brought together for periodic joint consultation and discussion of the problems encountered. The purpose of the technical subcommittee on Program is to plan for the maximum co-ordination of program in light of the different areas to be served and the varying pattern of facilities, and to work for the best functional divisions of responsibility.[12]

In May, 1948, the new planning body proposed by the survey was created and became known as the Metropolitan Recreation and Youth Services Council.

> *Purposes*
>
> The purposes of the organization shall be:
>
> 1. To provide a representative and responsible channel for the co-operation of public and private agencies and representatives of the community-at-large in the planning and development of sound and adequate recreation and youth services for the County of Los Angeles.
> 2. To aid in effectuating the recommendations of the Recreation Survey of Los Angeles metropolitan area and to continue the process of sound community planning demonstrated in that survey.
> 3. To report its findings and recommendations to the organizations which created it, namely, the Board of Supervisors of Los Angeles County; the Mayor and City Council of the City of Los Angeles; the Los Angeles City Board of Education; the Los Angeles City Recreation and Park Commission; the Welfare Federation of

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[11] Roy Sorenson and Others, *Recreation for Everybody* (Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles, Los Angeles, 1946).

[12] *Ibid.*

Los Angeles Area, and the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles; to the various public bodies and private agencies affected by its findings and recommendations, and to the public at large.

4. To be fact finding and advisory in its functions, respecting the integrity and right of action of the constituent and co-operating organizations, and expecting acceptance of its recommendations as justified by their soundness, propriety, and practicality.[13]

The tentative composition of the council described in the *Articles of Operation* was clearly defined in the by-laws adopted on August 30, 1950.

Membership
Section 1.

The council shall be composed of thirty outstanding lay citizens chosen as follows:

a. One third of the membership shall be leaders chosen from the citizenry-at-large because of their civic activity and their interest in recreation and youth services. These persons shall be nominated by the Welfare Federation of the Los Angeles Area and elected by the council.

b. One third of the membership shall be appointed from appointed or elected public officials having board or similar responsibility in the field of public recreation or youth services, of whom two each shall be members of and named by the Los Angeles City Recreation and Park Commission and the Los Angeles City Board of Education, one each from and by the Board of Supervisors, the County Youth Committee, and the Los Angeles City Council, two from among the public officials of cities in Los Angeles County, other than Los Angeles City (upon recommendation of the Los Angeles County Division of the League of California Cities), and one from a Board of Education or school department in the County of Los Angeles, other than Los Angeles City Board of Education (upon recommendation of the County Superintendent of Schools). These appointments shall be ratified by the council.

c. One third of the membership shall be board members of voluntary youth service and recreation organizations. These persons shall be selected by the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles under a process which shall provide representation from the

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[13] *Articles of Operation of Metropolitan Recreation and Youth Services Council* adopted Wednesday, May 5, 1948 (Los Angeles: Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles), pp. 1-2.

> various classifications of voluntary agencies in the county. These appointments shall be ratified by the council.[14]

Another approach to providing effective co-ordinating machinery for social welfare services is represented by the plan developed for Spartanburg County, South Carolina. The county is served by a number of public and private welfare agencies. There is a county-wide community chest, but no welfare council. With a population of 150,000, one third of whom live in the metropolitan area of the city of Spartanburg, and the other two thirds in the mill villages and on the farms in the county, the need was for a co-ordinating body which would be recognized by both urban and rural sections of the county. Its task would be to make possible an equitable distribution of present services to the entire county and to create new services as needed.

The community surveyors charged with the responsibility for developing the plan proposed the following council structure: [15]

> . . . The form of organization proposed for Spartanburg County does not have any exact counterpart. The principles upon which it is based, however, are those which are influencing enlightened leaders in many communities, in their efforts to make their organization for community planning and action more logical and effective. These principles are as follows:
>
> 1. The plan must provide for participation by residents and interests throughout the entire county.
> 2. The plan must provide for participation, on an active and influential basis, of the major economic forces of the area, industrial, agricultural, and commercial.
> 3. The plan must provide for participation by the agencies which carry on the programs, with important roles being carried by the public officials who are administratively responsible for the major public programs.

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[14] *By-Laws of the Metropolitan Recreation and Youth Services Council* (adopted August 30, 1950).

[15] Thomas H. Devine and Associates, *Design for Action—A Program for the People of Spartanburg County.* A social survey of the Community of Spartanburg County, conducted by Community Research Associates, Inc. (Spartanburg County Foundation, Spartanburg, South Carolina, 1951), pp. 19-22.

4. The plan must provide for effective participation by civic leaders selected from the important areas of civic service and interest, and
5. Finally, the plan must include broad representation from the county's various agencies, but also, through a compact, strong and active central body it must provide a *design for action.*

The base of the proposed organization is composed of a council on education, recreation, and the arts; a council on economic assistance and services; and a council on health and social adjustment. Each of these three councils should consist of two delegates from each agency, with a definite program in the council's field. Such agency might be any organization, association, church, governmental department or agency that is conducting, as a formal and important part of its program, services or activities designed to advance the general welfare of the citizens of Spartanburg County, in one or more of the fields encompassed by the three councils. These delegate members should have the exclusive right to vote for members on the Central Council, and to make policy decisions and recommendations. In addition to the delegate members, each council should be entitled to elect delegates at large from citizens in the community having a general interest in the council's field. The total number of delegates at large should not exceed 25 per cent of the total agency delegates.

A Central Council of eleven members should be created, to which each of the three councils should be responsible. Of the eleven members, three should be chosen by the three councils representing the different fields of service. The first year, one of these represntatives should be elected for a three-year term, one for a two-year term, and one for a one-year term. Each year thereafter, one council should elect a representative for a three-year term of office.

Four of the members of the Central Council should serve by virtue of their offices. These are the Director of the County Health Department, the County Superintendent of Schools, the Director of Public Welfare, and the County Agricultural Agent.

The first year these seven members should elect for three-year overlapping terms one representative from each of the major economic groups of the county—industry, agriculture, and commerce. These members should be elected from nominations by the respective economic groups. For instance, the Farm Bureau and the Grange might nominate the representative from agriculture. It is of the utmost importance that the different groups consciously recognize their representation on the Central Council, that they attach importance to this representation, and assume a moral obligation to support the person chosen. After the first year the Central Council should elect one "economic" representative each year.

These ten members should join in selecting an eleventh member who would serve as the executive director of the Central Council, and also provide assistance and guidance to the three councils by fields of service. This director should be a full-time salaried official, and should attend all meetings of the Central Council except executive sessions called for the purpose of discussing his remuneration or professional performance. . . .

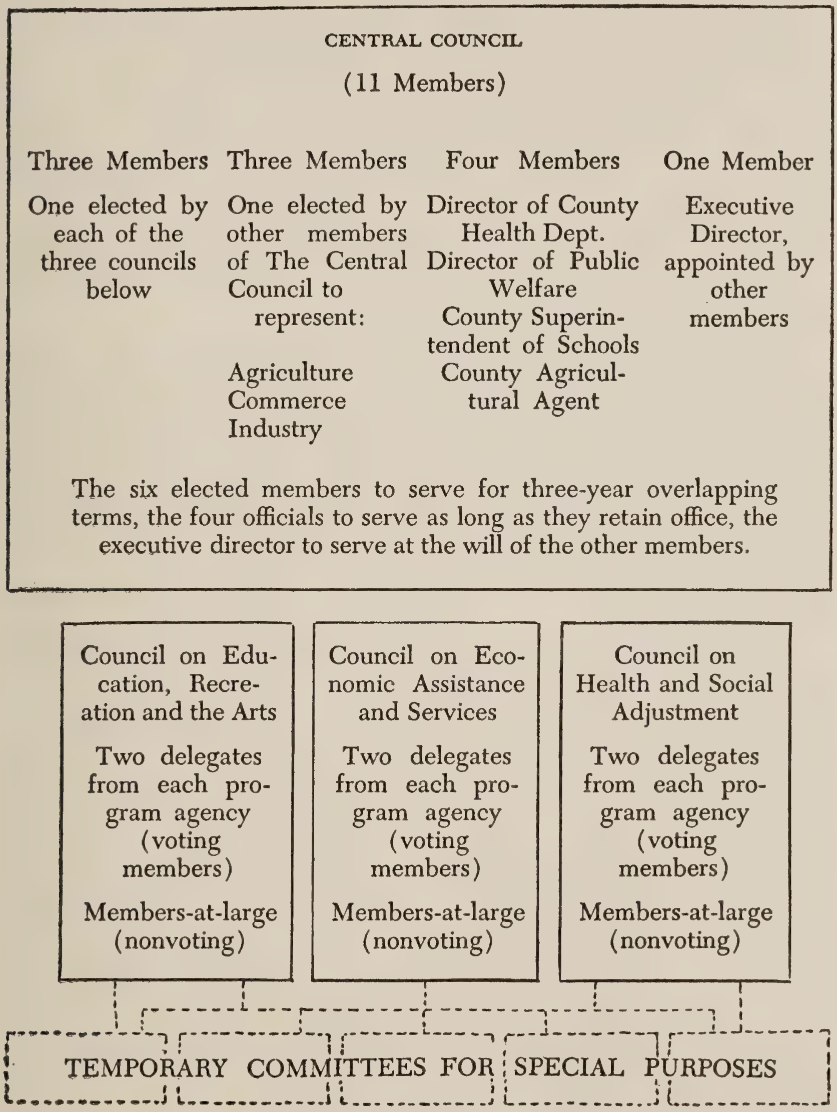
CONTRIBUTION OF COUNCILS

It would be improper to conclude this section on community councils without noting the gains in community planning made possible by these bodies. Imperfect as they may be, community councils or councils of social agencies have provided a structure within which the various health, welfare, and leisure-time agencies, through their representatives, have had opportunities to come to know each other and to work together in meeting community needs. The quality of service has improved; more and more planning is on the basis of factual data. Common services such as the social service exchange, the volunteer bureau, and joint publicity efforts, have been organized. It is only through the frank recognition of the limitations and weaknesses of the present machinery, however, and a sincere attempt to overcome the inadequacies and strengthen it, that progress can be made toward meeting the needs of people in a community.

Neighborhood Councils

Many arguments have been advanced for a neighborhood approach to community organization. The idea of planning by neighborhoods is not new; it preceded the development of councils of social agencies. The settlement movement has always been concerned with social problems in specified, limited geographic areas. Nevertheless, the development of planning on the neighborhood basis has occurred largely in the past decade and a half. Thus it is relatively recent that some attention has been diverted from the community-wide councils to planning on the basis of smaller units.

COUNCIL FOR SPARTANBURG COUNTY



CENTRAL COUNCIL

(11 Members)

Three Members	Three Members	Four Members	One Member
One elected by each of the three councils below	One elected by other members of The Central Council to represent: Agriculture Commerce Industry	Director of County Health Dept. Director of Public Welfare County Superintendent of Schools County Agricultural Agent	Executive Director, appointed by other members

The six elected members to serve for three-year overlapping terms, the four officials to serve as long as they retain office, the executive director to serve at the will of the other members.

Council on Education, Recreation and the Arts	Council on Economic Assistance and Services	Council on Health and Social Adjustment
Two delegates from each program agency (voting members)	Two delegates from each program agency (voting members)	Two delegates from each program agency (voting members)
Members-at-large (nonvoting)	Members-at-large (nonvoting)	Members-at-large (nonvoting)

TEMPORARY COMMITTEES FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION

Different forms of organization are represented by neighborhood councils. The council may be born of an attempt upon the part of a group of citizens to meet some urgent need such as improved garbage removal, or increased recreational facilities. Such councils are organized around one such specific need. It thus becomes a citizens' council. A second type is represented by the council composed of the professional health, welfare, recreation, and education workers of agencies serving the community. Improvement in services is attempted through coordination and joint planning. The third organizational pattern includes features of the other two and combines professional and indigenous lay leadership.

According to a recent study conducted by Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc.,[16] the make-up of neighborhood councils is shifting from membership of individuals to membership of organizations. The task of the neighborhood council is to bring together the various organized groups in the neighborhood, such as agencies, churches, schools, labor, and fraternal groups.

FUNCTIONS

The neighborhood council might be characterized as a "grass roots" organization, of people living in and/or working in a limited geographical area of the city, for the purpose of appraising local needs and developing resources to meet them. Because these people are working together to solve problems directly affecting them, the neighborhood councils differ from community welfare councils in program emphasis. In the first place, the interest is focused on a single problem or, at most, on a few problems. In the second place, the range of interest is broader in the neighborhood council and it may concern itself with any situation affecting life in the area. Because of these immediate and personal interests, the neighborhood council may display a dynamic quality often lacking in the community-wide councils.

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[16] Sidney Dillick, "Neighborhood Councils," a paper presented at the New England Conference of Community Chests and Councils, Springfield, Massachusetts, May 4, 1949.

Among the unique functions of a neighborhood council which have been suggested are the following: (1) co-ordination of health and welfare services at the neighborhood level; (2) helping people to become articulate about their needs and enlisting their participation in meeting the needs; (3) functioning as a medium for interchange of ideas for rank-and-file professionals; (4) serving as a medium for joint planning and action by agencies and civic groups; and (5) providing a means for getting the neighborhood view of problems across to those at the city-wide level.

Another function might well be added: serving as a medium for interpreting problems of a city-wide nature to neighborhoods.

NEIGHBORHOOD AND CITY-WIDE COUNCILS

In order to provide a "two-way street" between neighborhood councils and community councils, the need for some kind of structure has become quite apparent. The over-all question of how such councils could be related most effectively to each other, and to the over-all community welfare councils, has given rise to further questions. To what extent should the city-wide council control the neighborhood council and its program? Should neighborhood councils become members of the community council or be related in some other fashion?

Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., attempted to get some answers to such questions by querying the 350 member community welfare councils on developments in neighborhood organization.[17]

Of the 108 replies received, fifty cities reported neighborhood council development. In thirty-eight of these cities neighborhood councils were affiliated with the over-all welfare council. Of these, thirty-two had staff service from the city-wide council, but only in a few cases were the neighborhood councils related officially to the over-all councils. In these cases, they were affiliated as member agencies, through a Division or Bureau of Neighborhood Councils. Twenty of the thirty-two welfare councils had full-time staff devoted exclusively to neighborhood councils. Twelve other councils had staff devoting part-time service to the neighborhood organizations. Some

[17] *Ibid.*

of the over-all councils had special committees or neighborhood council divisions.

Community organization leaders in the welfare field have long realized the importance of bringing people and services together. This process for the most part has been on a one-way street—from the agencies to the people. A neighborhood council provides a two-way street over which the needs of the people for services travel directly to the central council, and the council resources in welfare services travel back to the people of the neighborhood.

To clear this two-way thoroughfare of road blocks, neighborhood councils should be related formally and directly to the community-wide welfare council. Planning must go on at both the neighborhood and the city-wide levels.

ASSOCIATIONS OF NEIGHBORHOOD COUNCILS

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, is one of the cities which have a division on neighborhood councils as part of the community-wide council. It is known as the Bureau of Community Councils of the Health and Welfare Federation of Pittsburgh and Allegheny County. Through an Association of Community Councils it enables local councils to become related to city- and county-wide planning and action, to discuss problems of council operation, and to exchange program ideas. The Association comprises all the local councils in Allegheny County. It "is not a superorganization which directs the activities of local councils, but is rather a round table about which gather the representatives of the several local councils to discuss their mutual problems and to undertake such programs as are mutually agreed upon." [18] Each local council is assured full autonomy.

The Bureau of Community Councils provides a trained professional staff to assist local community councils. The staff neither directs nor supervises the local councils but helps them to achieve the goals they have set for themselves. The services of the staff are available also to communities at the point of organizing a council.

Another example of the two-way street concept is presented by the experience of the Cleveland Welfare Federation with the Glenville Area Community Council. The following case illustrates not only how a local council becomes related to a city-wide council but also how a local council comes into existence and how it functions.

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[18] *Community Council Handbook* (Association of Community Councils, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 1950), p. 33.

FROM VILLAGE TO METROPOLITAN COMMUNITY

Before the turn of the century Glenville was a small rural village lying a few miles to the east of the City of Cleveland. It shortly became a very fashionable resort and vacation area boasting many estates, rambling homes, and a famous race track. After 1900 Glenville was annexed to the City of Cleveland. Brathenahl split off and became an independent village, preserving even today much of the "flavor" of that period around 1900.

After annexation Glenville began to take on the character of a thriving, rapidly expanding area. One of the muddy roads became known as Doan Avenue and later East 105th Street, today a major thoroughfare through the area.

As the population grew, Glenville became increasingly "built up." Between 1900 and 1920 many one- and two-family homes were built. Shopping centers and institutions grew to serve the growing community.

More important in the development of the community than the homes, streets, and stores, however, have been the people. Through the First World War the population was primarily Scotch, Irish, English, some German farmers, and New England immigrants. After 1920 major changes in the characteristics of the population occurred. Many Jewish people living in the "central areas" of Cleveland began moving to Glenville. Jewish institutions also moved to the area, and by 1930 it included the major concentration of Jewish people in Cleveland.

The Second World War served as the background for another important change in the population of the area. Economic security was increased during the war for people generally. Many people who were home owners in Glenville saw the possibility of moving further east to the suburbs. At the same time Negroes who had come to Cleveland to help man its shops and stores were forced to live in overcrowded neighborhoods because of segregation and discrimination. There had been for some time a small Negro population in Glenville. The "push" of the overcrowded neighborhood and the "pull" of decent housing combined to bring to Glenville a large increase in Negro population. Thus, in half a century the rural village of Glenville was transformed into a heavily populated interracial area of Cleveland.

THE ORIGIN OF THE GLENVILLE AREA COMMUNITY COUNCIL

Growing out of the population shifts, inadequacy of some social services, housing problems, meager recreation facilities, and noticeably increasing racial tensions in the area there developed increasing demands for community action. Under the stimulation of a small Independent Voters' Committee, the Civilian Defense Block Plan, and the Council Educational Alliance, a meeting was held on January tenth, 1945, to see what could be done to improve conditions.

Members of Parent-Teacher Associations, representatives of churches and synagogues, the Jewish Young Adult Bureau, and parent groups of the Council Educational Alliance were invited. Since it was the intent of the group that some type of perpetuating organization be set up, rather than a mere forum for the discussion of problems, an area council was agreed upon as the most effective medium. Funds of the Independent Voters' Committee were offered and accepted. A temporary executive committee was appointed and authorized to plan a general mass meeting.

Shortly afterward two more meetings were held on January 29 and February 5 to consider the following questions: (1) definition of the area, (2) problems of the area, (3) composition and organization of council, (4) finances, (5) publicity.

The meeting for the organization of the Glenville Area Community Council was held in Glenville High School on the evening of April 22, 1945. Too much cannot be said in praise of the committees which laid the groundwork. The meeting was well planned and publicized. Despite one of the worst rainstorms of the season, 1200 people crowded the auditorium to capacity.

Cards were distributed whereon members of the audience could vote their approval or disapproval of establishing a permanent council and indicate the field in which they would prefer to contribute their services.

Motions made from the floor and unanimously carried resulted in (a) establishing the Glenville Area Community Council, (b) the appointment by the Chair of nominating and constitution committees, (c) authorization to temporary officers and temporary executive committee to act until election of permanent officers.

The second meeting, on May 22, was called to act upon the reports of the nominating and constitution committees. Copies of the proposed constitution were distributed as well as the proposed slates for the executive committee. On both, there was spirited discussion and a division of opinion, especially with reference to method of

> nomination. After amendment, both reports were accepted. Thus, the Glenville Area Community Council was created.[19]
>
> ### WHAT IS THE COUNCIL FOR?
>
> As stated in the constitution of the Glenville Area Community Council its purpose is "to study the social and civic needs of the area and to promote a program designed to strengthen the general welfare and unity of the area."
>
> Within the framework of this general purpose, the work of the council might be conveniently divided into four main parts: (1) efforts to secure more or better services for the area, (2) direct action to improve physical conditions in the area, (3) activities promoting understanding and neighborliness between different individuals and groups in the area, (4) activities directed toward influencing some of the larger social and economic factors that affect this area as a part of the city, state, or nation.[20]

It is evident that the council came into existence as a response to a recognized need for the community to do something about the social problems created by an expanded and changing population.

> ### WHAT FORM DOES THE COUNCIL ORGANIZATION TAKE?
>
> While the Glenville Area Community Council was developed in 1945 as an individual membership organization, it has grown and developed into a federation of organizations and "units." More than fifty organizations and institutions including churches, PTA's, schools, street and neighborhood groups, fraternal and business organizations, and social agencies participated in council meetings and activities during the year ending June 1, 1950. Individuals are still encouraged to join the council and play an active part in it through area committees, or street and neighborhood "units." "Units" of the council were developed to enable interested residents of a given street or neighborhood within the area to band together for the good of their immediate neighborhood and for more effective co-operation in area-wide activities. . . . In general, the present structure provides for the co-operative action of all nonpartisan groups in the area as well as opportunity for effective participation by individuals. It allows for attention to neighborhood and street

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[19] *On Our Way Toward a Better Glenville, A Guide for Community Council Workers* (The Glenville Area Community Council, Cleveland, Ohio, 1949), pp. 2-5.

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 6.

problems while providing avenues for co-operation on an area-wide basis. . . .

FINANCING THE WORK OF THE COUNCIL

. . . *Welfare Federation Assistance.* To help carry out its job of planning to meet health and welfare needs in Cuyahoga County, the Cleveland Welfare Federation, which is financed by the community fund, employs a staff of several clerical workers and "field" workers (community council secretaries). One clerical worker and one "field" worker are assigned to give the bulk of their working time to the Glenville Area Community Council. (From time to time the Welfare Federation may call upon these two staff members for work-assistance to joint community council committees, to other community councils, or to special committees of the Federation.) In addition to this staff service, the Cleveland Welfare Federation is paying (in 1950) for about one-third the cost of office supplies, postage, and telephone service for the Glenville Council. The balance of these costs plus rentals for meeting rooms is paid by the community council.[21]

The Glenville Area Community Council is more than a neighborhood council, even as its name implies. It represents community organization on the geographic level above the neighborhood—the area or district. In a way it is an answer to the vexing problem of defining the neighborhood. In these days of increased communication and greater mobility, the neighborhood as a geographic entity rarely exists. The natural planning areas are more extensive and may include a number of so-called neighborhoods.

THE PARTS OF THE COUNCIL AND HOW THEY WORK

. . . The total Glenville Area Community Council includes (1) the Assembly, (2) the Executive Committee, (3) Special and Standing Area Committees, (4 and 5) Neighborhood Associations, Units, or Councils, (6) Street or Block Units, and (7) Co-operating Organizations. The nature of these component parts and the way they work as provided in the council constitution are outlined below.

1. The Assembly is composed of two representatives chosen by each unit and affiliated organization. Representatives to the Assembly are responsible to the groups which elect them. They should

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[21] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

express the wishes and proposals of the groups they represent and report the action of the Assembly to their groups.

The Assembly is the governing body of the council, determining its general or basic policies. In performing this job the Assembly (a) considers facts about the area and issues affecting the people of the area, (b) seeks the widest possible study of these facts and proposals for action by the co-operating organizations, (c) adopts a policy on an issue or proposal after opportunity for consideration by the co-operating groups, and (d) co-ordinates joint action undertaken by these groups through the Assembly.

2. The Executive Committee is composed of the officers of the council, five members elected by the Assembly, and one by each neighborhood body, the chairmen of standing area committees, and, ex officio, the council's delegates to city-wide bodies.

The Executive Committee is responsible to the Assembly and serves as an administrative body to see that Assembly decisions and the council purposes are carried out. The Executive Committee gives leadership to the entire council and plans Assembly meetings and establishes committees as required by the Assembly or the council purpose.

3. The Area committees both standing and special are established as deemed necessary by the Assembly or the Executive Committee. Committee chairmen are appointed by the council president upon confirmation of the executive committee. Committee members are selected by the executive committee or, if it authorizes, by the committee chairman.

Area committees are responsible to the Executive Committee (which in turn is responsible to the Assembly). Area committees gather facts, work out recommendations to submit to the Assembly and the co-operating organizations. After a plan of action is agreed upon by the Assembly, a committee may be asked to carry out the plan.

4. and 5. Neighborhood Associations, Units, Councils, or Committees are all forms of neighborhood organization encouraged by the area council to help residents deal effectively with neighborhood problems and to enable a larger number of people throughout the area to take an active part in the council program. In order to allow a form of organization suited to the various neighborhoods of the area several types are suggested:

a. The Neighborhood Association is an independent group of residents within a specific territory—usually about the size of an elementary school district. Such groups may affiliate with the area council and elect two representatives to the Assembly and in addition may elect a member to serve on the council's Executive Committee.

b. The Neighborhood Unit is composed of individual community members within a specific territory—usually about the size of an elementary school district. As a unit of the council such a group acts in accord with general council policy. The Neighborhood Unit elects two representatives to the area Assembly and one to the area Executive Committee. The East 123rd Street Neighborhood Unit is an example of this type of organization.

c. The Neighborhood Council or Committee is a third type of neighborhood organization and is composed of representatives from organizations in a specific territory. As a neighborhood committee of the Community Council it also acts in accord with general council policy. The Neighborhood Council or Committee elects two representatives to the area Assembly and one to the area Executive Committee. The East 105th Street Neighborhood Committee, which consists of representatives from twenty-one street clubs, is an example of this kind of neighborhood organization.

6. The Block Unit is composed of individual community council members on a specific street or block. It deals independently with specific street problems but acts in accord with general council policy on larger issues. The Block Unit elects two representatives to the area Assembly.

7. Co-operating or affiliated organizations are independent, autonomous groups of a nonpartisan character, which affiliate with/or co-operate through the council. A variety of adult organizations are included—street clubs, fraternal organizations, PTA's, and institutions which serve the community, such as churches, schools, and social agencies. Such groups are not bound by decisions of the council. Affiliated groups elect two representatives to the area Assembly.[22]

From these accounts it is apparent that encouraging developments are taking place. As a result of experience to date, certain principles of organization and operation are emerging.

CO-ORDINATING COUNCILS

A special type of neighborhood council is the co-ordinating council, first organized in 1919 in Berkeley, California. The organization of the Los Angeles County Co-ordinating Councils in 1931 imparted the greatest impetus to their development. These councils were organized originally to combat delinquency among children. "The purpose of a co-ordinating council is to adopt a simple formula by which all agencies and organizations in the community interested in the welfare of youth may pull together in order to make the community a better place in which to live." [23] In many cases co-ordinating councils have broadened their purpose to include other social problems, though deliquency prevention continues as a major objective.

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[22] *Ibid.*, pp. 12-15.

The existence of these co-ordinating councils alongside other neighborhood councils, plus a central council in the same city, has posed certain problems. One is the matter of working out co-operative relationships between these bodies. Another related problem revolves around the fact that in some areas of a city the representatives on the Recreation or Leisure-Time Division of the city-wide council are the same ones sitting in as members of the co-ordinating council. Similar or even identical problems are being discussed by the two planning bodies without relationship to each other except through the fact that some of the same personnel are seated on both groups.

* * *

No matter how imperfect the present councils may be, they represent a recognition of the need for co-operative effort and worthy attempts to plan and promote more adequate welfare service. At this juncture it is difficult to foresee the exact form these community organization devices may take in the future. It is unlikely that any single pattern is desirable. The important thing to note is that experimentation is going on, and new patterns of organization are being developed.

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[23] "The Los Angeles County Co-ordinating Council Plan," a two-page statement giving the history, purpose, and form of organization.

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Federated Financing

The development of joint financing as an aspect of community organization was a natural, logical step in the evolution of the social welfare services. As agencies came into being to meet specific needs their very numbers brought with them a new problem of organization. These agencies, in order to maintain themselves, launched independent financial drives and largely solicited the same constituency. Merchants on "Main Street" and persons socially or economically outstanding were fair targets for all such solicitations. These same people also were asked to serve as workers in the campaign structures. Competition among the agencies developed to the extent that it was destructive to the best interests of the community. Agency-mindedness rather than community-mindedness prevailed.

Out of this situation came a *felt need* for improved organization. With the charity organization societies channeling their efforts into the development of family case work, there was no machinery for co-ordination. Though the need for co-ordination was undoubtedly recognized by the staffs of the operating agencies, the principal donors, confused by the multiplicity of campaigns and the subsequent demands upon their pocketbooks and time, wished to bring order out of chaos.

The early developments in federated financing were traced in Chapter 7. The material to be presented here will deal with structure and relationships of existing federated fund-raising bodies and current developments in new approaches to co-operative undertakings in financing social welfare services.

Chest-Council Relationship and Structure

In Cleveland the development of the organization for joint financing preceded the birth of the co-ordinating and planning agency. In Cincinnati in 1915 it was the Council of Social Agencies which established the Central Budget Committee for the purpose of conducting a joint fund-raising campaign.

The development of the chest and council movements has been largely contemporaneous. The community chest has stimulated the growth of social welfare planning on a community-wide basis. The interests of the true chest go beyond mere fund raising and focus on the effective development of the community's health and welfare program. The chest is inextricably involved in the community organization process at a number of points. When agencies are considered for membership in the chest it is usually on the basis of such criteria as purpose, standards of service, area of coverage, and need for the service. This, in essence, is attempting to relate social welfare resources to need. The function of budgeting in the distribution of funds collected also goes deeply into community organization. These concerns of the chest have naturally related it closely to the co-ordinating and planning body. In some communities the relationship is so close that the community chest and community welfare council operate as parts of a single organization. In some cities the council is a division of, and subordinate to, the chest. In still other cities, the chest and the council are organically separate, though working together closely. Regardless of the pattern of relationship there is general agreement that close relationship between these two bodies is essential. Councils should have some formal part in the budgeting of funds. This is usually accomplished by the council's participation in the selection of the budget committee.

Membership of Chests

Because the community chest is a local enterprise the nature of the member agencies may differ from city to city. In general, however, the nonprofit organizations which operate services in the health, welfare, and recreation fields are eligible for membership. Normally, religious and educational institutions are not considered eligible except as they may operate special health or welfare services. Among the agencies found most frequently on the chest rolls are: day nurseries, family service societies, visiting nurse associations, general case work agencies, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y.W.C.A.'s and

Y.M.C.A.'s, Boys' Clubs, settlements, community centers, Salvation Army, child placement agencies, mental hygiene societies, Catholic social service agencies, Jewish social service agencies, tuberculosis and health associations, and general hospitals.

Budget Administration

Community chest funds available for local Red Feather services have mounted steadily and substantially over the past decade. In 1940 a sum of $86,297,068 was raised by 561 community chests. By 1950 the number of recorded chests increased to 1,318 and the amount raised to $192,933,988.[1] However, the 1950 campaigns halted the upward trend by producing only a slight increase (2.6 per cent) over 1949.[2]

One of the most vexing problems in chest-agency relationship is around the budgeting process. With the possibility of static chest budgets, the problem is likely to become more troublesome. In an attempt to clarify this issue a Committee on Study of Budget Administration of Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., and the National Social Welfare Assembly met during 1950 with a group representative of national agencies, whose local units generally participate in chests. The committee formulated a statement on Budget Administration, which it submitted to agency representatives for judgment. "While there is some difference of opinion between the committee and the representatives of these national agencies, it can be said that there is substantial agreement." [3]

The committee recognized that "from the earliest days, the mechanics of the annual budget review, its policies, practices, and principles, have been the subject of continuous study, discussion, conference presentations and writing, and even sharp debate between chests and agency personnel." [4] Attempting to resolve some of the difficulties in budget administration, Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., as early as 1931 published a manual *Budgets in a Community Chest.* This manual focused upon the principles guiding the preparation of the annual budget estimate and the processes by which the budget is accepted for inclusion in the annual appeal. The report of the Committee on Study of Budget Administration concerns itself with the year-around administration of budgets after the approval of the basic annual estimate. To this end the committee proposed a set of principles to be tested in local communities during 1951:

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[1] *"Trends in Community Chest Giving,"* Bulletin 150 (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., July, 1950), p. 2.

[2] *Community Chest Budgeting for 1950,* Bulletin 149 (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., June 1950), p. 2.

[3] From a letter to Chest and Council executives from the Committee on Study of Budget Administration, December 1, 1950.

[4] *Budget Administration—A Year-Around Process* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., December, 1950), p. 1.

PRINCIPLES OF BUDGET ADMINISTRATION

These principles of year-around budget administration are set forth with the assumption that an annual budget estimate has been established in a manner acceptable to the chest and the agency. They further recognize that the financial quantities contained in a budget statement are the expression of program values and services and must be so dealt with.

I. *Flexibility*

The capacity of the budgeting process to adapt the budget to changing conditions during the year is the essence of year-around budget administration. Certain basic methods of achieving flexibility are discussed below.

A. Revisions of budget during the year
  1. Any significant changes in the total of expenditures and receipts should be cleared by agencies with the chest.
  2. Adjustments necessitated by unforeseen conditions, within the approved budget totals, may properly be made by an agency without requiring the approval of the chest budget committee, except as follows:
    a. Adjustments which involve any departure from the scope and program of an agency as originally approved
    b. Adjustments which involve commitments or which establish any facilities necessitating additional expense in subsequent years
    c. Adjustments which involve increases in certain types of expenditures which may affect other agencies in the community, for example, increases in boarding-home rates for children
    d. Increase or decrease in service charges by agencies—room rates, etc.

B. Deficits and surpluses
  1. In accordance with the general philosophy of deficit financing, chests have an obligation, within the limits of their resources, to meet unanticipated agency deficits if the expenditures causing the deficit have been approved. It is assumed that an agency will exercise due diligence in securing the earned income which it estimates it will secure.
  2. Similarly, if an agency does not need the full amount of its chest appropriation and ends the fiscal year with an unencumbered balance, such balance should be applied as income against the estimated expenditures for the following year subject to the observation appearing below, or, if the balance remains in the accounts of the chest, it should revert to the chest's general fund. . . .

C. Financial advances to agencies
Good administration of budgets recognizes the need of each agency to have an adequate cash fund for operation. This should be provided through an advance of chest funds at the beginning of the fiscal year.

II. *Accountability*
The accountability of chests and agencies to each other and the general accountability of the Red Feather program to the community as expressed through budget management is a part of the year-around job of budget administration. The following accepted methods of achieving accountability are recommended:

A. Monthly reporting
  1. Agencies should transmit monthly to the chest a report of actual income and expense for the past month and an estimate of needs for the current month. In certain circumstances the period may vary, but should not exceed a quarter of a year.
  2. The monthly report should include the following:
    a. Itemized actual income and expense for the past month
    b. Itemized actual income and expense for the year to date
    c. The prorated amount of each approved budget item for the year to date
    d. Itemized estimate of income and expense for the current month
    e. Information should be submitted monthly showing the following:

            Cash balance at end of month
            Accounts receivable
            Accounts payable
            Unpaid salaries
        f. Any activity in capital accounts
        (Some chests also ask agencies to include in the monthly report the itemized actual income and expense for the same period of the preceding year.)
    3. Community chests should make available to their participating agencies monthly (quarterly) reports giving financial condition of the chest.
    4. If the estimate for the current month contains marked variations from the prorated amount of the approved budget items, it should be accompanied by an explanation of the reasons for such variations.

  B. Payments to agencies
    1. The chest should, on a regular monthly basis, make payment to agencies of the amount estimated by the agency in its monthly report as needed from chest funds except as provided by number 2 below. These payments constitute a credit against the approved agency budget for the year and may not exceed the total budget for the year except with additional approval.
    2. In the event the budget committee questions the amount of the monthly payment, full opportunity for conference and discussion should be provided.
    3. If there are no extraordinary circumstances, payments should follow a routine procedure. Otherwise, they should be made upon special authorization of the budget committee.

  C. Financial audit
  An annual audit of each of the participating agencies prepared by a reputable accountant or accounting firm should be furnished the chest and filed with the budget committee.

III. *Reserves*
  A. Operating income should not be used to build up agency reserves.
  B. From the standpoint of sound budget administration, the chest should annually provide a contingency reserve which can be drawn upon for unforeseen requirements during the current year.[5]

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[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 5-8.

Chests and Capital Funds

It is obvious that operating needs and capital needs of many agencies cannot be separated. The current operating program of many agencies is directly dependent on building and equipment resources. If programs are to be maintained at an efficient operating level, attention must be given to urgent capital requirements of agencies. Campaigns for such requirements were postponed by the depression and World War II. Further, chest agencies usually have contracted agreements not to campaign for capital funds without the approval of the chest.

To partially meet this problem many chests are experimenting with the provision of special reserves for major repairs and emergency replacements. This is contrary to traditional chest policy which stipulates that the chest ordinarily appropriates money to an agency for operating purposes only. Some community chests have completely abandoned their traditional policy and have accepted direct responsibility for financing both operating and building needs of member agencies.[6]

Those who have moved toward complete chest financing of agency needs are convinced that "a plan for capital improvements should be based on total community needs, not on an opportunistic, individual approach. This . . . is . . . a logical corollary of the basic principle of the community chest movement, which is the consideration of needs and services on a *community-wide basis*."[7]

To date, the policy of complete financing of agency needs has not been adopted by the majority of community chests. In many communities the capital requirements are still unmet. Here is another problem which faces the community chest in its relationship with the member agencies.

Trends in Federated Financing

The underlying reason for the development of the community chest movement was to effect economy—economy of campaign costs, of solicitation work, and of time.

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[6] Esther Moore, "The Chest and Capital Funds," *The Community Chest and Capital Funds* (New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 1946), p. 1.

[7] *Ibid.*

In budgeting for 1950, the average amount allocated to central finance and planning in 159 community chests was 12.1 cents out of every dollar.[8] Prior to the formation of the Federation of Charities and Philanthropy in Cleveland, the welfare agencies of that city spent, on the average, thirty-three cents out of every dollar raised in the individual campaigns.[9]

In addition to a saving in time and money, community chests have tended to provide more adequate financing in the health and welfare field, especially for the smaller agencies. Too, the base of citizen participation in the financing of services has been broadened. For 1947 the number of givers showed a gain of 35 per cent over 1941 and 70 per cent over 1935–1939.[10] More adequate over-all facts about expenditures and services and, to some extent, a better balance of services in the community resulted from the functioning of community chests.

The steadily increasing number of drives in local communities, especially for national efforts such as the Red Cross campaign, the March of Dimes, the Cancer Fund, and drives for other health needs, has caused some local communities to re-examine their federated finance structures and work out methods of handling national agency needs.

Open Door Policy

One of the promises held out to contributors to community chests has been "immunity" from other appeals for operating requirements by the member agencies. This has always had a strong appeal for those contributors who, by virtue of their position in the community, were logical targets for the individual agency campaigns. With the coming of the national health campaigns, as well as other local appeals for funds, these contributors no longer enjoy such immunity. This factor looms large in the development of the "open door policy" in an increasing number of chests today. A policy which offers participation to any national or local agency which meets certain

[8] *Community Chest Budgeting for 1950, op. cit.*, p. 3.

[9] From an interview with Howard Strong, then associate director of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce and a prime mover for the Federation.

[10] Fred K. Hoehler, "Comunity Chests," *Social Work Year Book, 1949,* Margaret B. Hodges, Editor (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1949), p. 128.

criteria and which desires to participate, the open door policy is particularly an effort of local chests to accept some responsibility for financing national agencies.

"There are too many campaigns" has become the battle cry of many community leaders who want something done about it.

State Chests

Michigan took drastic action to control multiplicity of campaigns. Community leaders, annoyed by the increasing number of fund-raising campaigns, decided to do something about it. On July 15, 1947, approximately 125 community leaders, representing sixty-one of Michigan's eighty-three counties, met to consider the problem and attempt to find a practical solution. The idea of a federated plan of action was proposed and approved, and the meeting authorized the formation of the United Health and Welfare Fund of Michigan. On August 12, the organization was incorporated. The first annual United Fund Campaign was officially launched on January 13, 1949.[11] The consolidated drive achieved great success in three leading cities, Flint, Detroit, and Pontiac, all of which went substantially over their quotas.

Despite the financial success of the Michigan United Fund Campaign, success was limited in other ways. Only one half of the counties had conducted campaigns during the first half of 1949. Another source of difficulty was the fact that the "Big Five," the American Red Cross, National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, National Tuberculosis Association, American Cancer Society, and the National Society for Crippled Children and Disabled Adults, refused to join in the plan. "These agencies feared that, as members of a federation, they would lose their identity; have their educational and publicity activities limited; lose control of their budgets; and/or be used to promote weaker and less known agencies. They also pointed out that federation was contrary to their national policy." [12]

One of the most vocal national agency leaders, the president of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis and then also chairman of the Central Committee of the American Red

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[11] *Michigan Unites to Serve Human Needs* (Lansing: United Health and Welfare Fund, Inc., March, 1949), p. 5.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

Cross, openly criticized the federation idea before the creation of the Michigan United Fund, and has labeled it "un-American," "undemocratic," and "dictatorial."[13] When invited to join the United Fund, Mr. O'Connor again attacked federation. In very legalistic terms he told fund leaders that they must "cease all attempts or acts in soliciting or preparing to solicit funds for . . . [the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis] or our services upon any basis or upon any representations whatsoever, or from fixing or attempting to fix any budget for our services or goal for our fund raising. . . ."[14]

It is quite evident that there are two schools of thought with regard to the manner in which welfare services should be financed—the school of federated financing and the school of independent financing. Some of the leaders for independent fund raising are unequivocally opposed to federated fund raising. Proponents of federated financing are just as positive in their beliefs. "More, not less federation is the answer."[15]

Local United Funds

No single pattern for solving the problem of multiple appeals is either likely or desirable. "What we need is flexibility, plus adherence to the basic fundamentals which we have established as valid over our 37-year history. . . . Specifically it is suggested that each community set up a committee, sufficiently representative . . . to study the problem in all its phases . . . develop a plan and put the plan into effect."[16]

The following case study illustrates how one community took this advice and organized a local United Fund.

THE UNITED FUND OF GREATER SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS, INC.

On March 14, 1950, "material concerning the Detroit 'Torch' campaign was presented to board members and it was decided that a special meeting of the Board of Trustees would be called in the near future to discuss the problems of multiplicity of campaigns and the possibility of more complete federation." [17]

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[13] Basil O'Connor, "Campaign Battleground?" *Survey Midmonthly,* LXXXIII (June 1947), p. 170.

[14] *Michigan Unites to Serve Human Needs, op. cit.,* p. 5.

[15] Statement made by Ralph Blanchard, Executive Director of Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., at the National Chest-Council Conference in Cincinnati, February, 1950.

[16] *Ibid.*

The special meeting was called on March 28, 1950, to discuss whether the Community Chest "should and would recognize its public responsibility and furnish active leadership in an attempt to bring order out of chaos created by the multiplicity of campaigns by organizing an all-inclusive campaign this fall." [18] The focus of the discussion was on whether there should be an over-all organization, such as that existing in Michigan, or whether the Community Chest should assume the responsibility for a more inclusive campaign. It was finally voted "that the Board of Trustees of the Community Chest of Springfield, Massachusetts, Inc., records itself as in favor of further federation in the form of an all-inclusive campaign. Further, that this organization investigate the problem and take whatever steps are deemed necessary in order to bring about such further federation." [19]

A Steering Committee on Federation was formed which quickly made plans for a public meeting. At this meeting the committee proposed to seek answers to three major questions: "(1) Is there a definite need for further federation and does the community want it? (2) Does the community want the Community Chest to take the lead in attempting to bring about further federation? and (3) If so, will the persons present pledge themselves to co-operate to the fullest extent, and get their friends to co-operate also, in order to make further federation successful?" [20]

If the answers to the questions were affirmative the plan was to create an advisory committee of representative citizens to negotiate with the agencies to join the federated plan.

Approximately 125 community leaders, well representative of the civic, cultural, financial, labor, business, industrial and religious life of Springfield, met on June 13, 1950, at the Museum of Fine Arts. The idea of a federated plan was proposed and adopted, and a Steering Committee appointed to work out a suitable plan.

At another meeting of this same group on July 6, the Steering Committee proposed the creation of the United Fund, and submitted details of the organizational plan. The Citizens' Committee adopted this plan, elected twenty-five incorporators, heard the report of the Nominating Committee and gave instructions that the legal steps necessary to form the corporation be carried out. On July 25, 1950, trustees and officers were elected, and the organization was under way.[21]

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[17] Minutes, Community Chest of Springfield, Massachusetts, Inc., Board of Trustees, Tuesday, March 14, 1950, p. 6.

[18] *Ibid.*, March 28, 1950, p. 1.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

[20] From the records of the Steering Committee on Federation, April 4, 1950.

Principles governing the admission and participation of health, welfare, and recreational agencies in the United Fund were developed and distributed to all interested agencies.

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING ADMISSION AND PARTICIPATION OF HEALTH, WELFARE, AND RECREATIONAL AGENCIES IN THE UNITED FUND OF GREATER SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS, INCORPORATED

Realizing that the conflicting, competing, and repetitious campaigns are wasteful of time and money, we seek a more inclusive federation of community-approved health, welfare, and recreational agencies. We recognize that it is not possible to federate all fund raising for all purposes in one gift once a year.

Eligible Agencies

Agencies eligible for inclusion are those health, welfare, and recreational agencies which are effectively rendering necessary services; or agencies whose primary function is raising funds for such agencies; and any other agencies approved by the Board of Trustees.

New Agencies

The price of federation is more federation. When once established, the United Fund of Greater Springfield, Massachusetts, Incorporated, must not become a closed corporation, shutting its doors to new, worth-while causes or agencies.

It must be recognized that it is inevitable and desirable for new causes and agencies to evolve from time to time and come knocking on the federation's door. If excluded, the logical and consequential result of the closed-door policy is separate appeals on the part of the new agencies, starting once again the vicious cycle of the multiplying of such separate appeals, to the disintegration of federation.

Conditions for Participation

The following Conditions for Participation in the federated fund raising by the United Fund of Greater Springfield, Massachusetts,

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[21] *The Story of the United Fund,* The United Fund of Greater Springfield, Massachusetts, Inc., 1950.

Incorporated, are necessary of adoption by the federating agencies so that the fund-raising group may exercise prudent stewardship of voluntary public funds. These are not in any sense designed to interfere with the autonomy of any of the federating agencies, for the fund-raising group has no desire to interfere, but to assure the public that programs are as represented, that duplication does not exist, that equity prevails as between agencies, that the funds desired are necessary and will be used as stated.

It is understood that this is a federation of autonomous agencies for fund raising only and each agency is encouraged, within the limits of the policies to be established by the Trustees, to

(1) preserve the identity and independence of the agency.
(2) put before the public its own publicity and educational material.

Participation by Local Agencies

All local health, welfare, and recreational agencies, as a condition for inclusion in the United Fund of Greater Springfield, Massachusetts, Incorporated, shall

1. Have an active and responsible local governing body, serving without compensation, holding regular meetings and with a satisfactory form of administrative control and local program.
2. Keep complete and accurate accounts of all their receipts and expenditures and adopt a standard system of accounting.
3. Have their accounts audited at least once a year by a local certified public accountant and submit audit to the corporation.
4. Elect or appoint local treasurers who are residents of the territory in which this corporation operates.
5. Render such service statistics and financial statistics or reports as the Board of Trustees deems necessary.
6. Present an itemized and classified annual budget estimate, indicating an attainable program and embracing the whole health, welfare, and recreational activities of the local agency.
7. Since solicitation of funds apart and beyond that of the federated campaign, by participating agencies, defeats the purposes and tends to weaken federation, but under certain circumstances may be necessary, each agency shall have a clearly defined agreement with the Board of Trustees concerning such fund-raising activities.
8. Not acquire real or personal property, enlarge its program or undertake any obligation by virtue of which the agency would require present or future increased assistance from the corporation, without approval of the Board of Trustees.

9. After proper review of the budget by the Budget Committee of the corporation, accept the recommended budget allocations that the Budget Committee makes, and make such program modification as the budget requires, if any.
10. Any federating agency, upon joining the United Fund of Greater Springfield, must agree that its participation in fund raising will be on a community-wide basis and not limited to an in-plant federation basis.
11. Each agency shall have the right to appeal any decision of any committee to the Board of Trustees.
12. The Board of Trustees shall have the right to approve or deny any application for participation or to terminate the participation in the United Fund of any agency for any reason.

Participation by National, Sectional, or State-wide Agencies

All national, sectional, or state-wide health, welfare, and recreational agencies, as a condition for inclusion in the United Fund of Greater Springfield, Massachusetts, Incorporated, shall:

1. Have an active and responsible local representative, serving without compensation.
2. Render such service statistics and financial statistics or reports as the Board of Trustees deems necessary.
3. Present an itemized and classified annual budget estimate satisfactory to the Budget Committee, indicating an attainable program and embracing the whole health, welfare, and recreational activities of the agency.
4. Since solicitation of funds apart from and beyond that of the federated campaign, by participating agencies, defeats the purposes and tends to weaken federation, but under certain circumstances may be necessary, each agency shall have a clearly defined agreement with the Board of Trustees concerning such fund-raising activities.
5. After proper review of the budget by the Budget Committee of the corporation, accept the recommended budget allocations that the Budget Committee makes, and make such program modification as the budget requires, if any.
6. Any federating agency, upon joining the United Fund of Greater Springfield, must agree that its participation in fund raising will be on the total community level, and not limited to an in-plant federation basis.
7. Each participating agency shall have the right to appeal any decision of any committee to the Board of Trustees.
8. The Board of Trustees shall have the right to approve or deny

> any application for participation or to terminate the participation in the United Fund of any agency for any reason.[22]

The United Fund early recognized that building toward complete federation is a long, hard job, and that it was too much to hope that all agencies then conducting separate appeals would join the first year. In all, nine new agencies were added to the thirty-two community chest agencies.

The campaign, launched in October, 1950, set its goal at $780,475, and at the close the total amount raised was $783,179.86. The first United Fund campaign had achieved its financial goal.

Similar enlarged federated campaigns were attempted in some fifteen other cities in seven states.

Contributions of Joint Financing

The community chest movement has unquestionably contributed to the progress of social welfare. Federated financing has brought a measure of order in fund raising. It has tended to stabilize voluntary financing and to increase the amounts of money secured. This has resulted in stabilizing the member agencies. Joint financing has broadened the base of giving, increasing the number of contributions, among them corporations and employees. Chests have given impetus to the development of improved methods of financial and statistical accounting in the agencies. A significant gain has been made in the area of co-ordination and planning, relating the agencies more realistically to community needs.

These, then, may be placed on the credit side of the ledger. Certain items, however, appear on the debit side. Autocratic control and concentration of authority in the hands of a few is a distinct loss. It has also been pointed out that the "package" plan dilutes the appeal of individual agencies and that these agencies may be in danger of losing their individuality—their distinctive characteristics. Critics of the chests maintain that though the total amounts raised may have increased, individual giving, in many cases, has nevertheless declined. A serious charge is that chest financing has thwarted the natural process of growth and decay and that some agencies, which normally would have passed out of existence because their services were no longer needed or because of other factors, are fed financially and their life prolonged.

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[22] Principles Governing Admission and Participation of Health, Welfare, and Recreational Agencies in the United Fund of Greater Springfield, Massachusetts, Incorporated.

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These strengths and weaknesses of federated financing are being placed in the balance, and the issues which they raise must be resolved if federated financing is to realize its greatest potentials for sound community organization and planning.

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State and National Planning and Financing of Services

CO-OPERATIVE HEALTH and welfare planning on a state-wide and nation-wide basis has become of increasing importance. The experience with state defense councils, state and national war chests, and co-operative enterprises among national organizations during World War II gave impetus to such developments. In more recent years a number of new experimental projects have been undertaken.

These developments, however, had their beginnings long before World War II. The State Charities Aid Association in New York, considered the oldest voluntary state-wide comprehensive organization for health and welfare, was founded in 1872. Evidence of national organizations planning together in the interest of the community is also to be found in the early decades of this century. Informal meetings of executives of national associations to discuss mutual problems and exchange information resulted in the formation of the Committee on Families and Neighborhoods in 1910.

State-wide Organizations

Since both official and unofficial associations are engaged in the furtherance of welfare, they will be treated separately in this chapter.

STATE PUBLIC AGENCIES

The Massachusetts Board of State Charities, established in 1863, was the first state agency concerned with public welfare. It was born of the necessity for establishing some standards to govern the operations of both state and private institutions. State institutions for the blind, the insane, the feeble-minded, and the deaf, were established during the nineteenth century when it became evident that specialized institutions for handicapped groups could be provided best by the state.

The Massachusetts act was followed slowly but steadily by other states. In 1867 Ohio and New York took action. These were followed by Illinois, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island in 1869; by Wisconsin and Michigan in 1871; and by Kansas and Connecticut in 1873. By 1913 there were only ten states which had not created a central authority to deal with dependent groups.

In these first statutes, provision was made for continuous, lay, unpaid boards. Of the thirty-eight states, two had "single-headed" authorities and thirty-six had boards varying in numbers from three to twelve members.[1] The powers of these boards were limited generally to visitation, inspection, and supervision of institutions. An increase in administrative power of these boards in their relations to the state institutions inevitably followed. Thus began a movement from "supervision" to "control." As early as 1887, of the twelve State Boards then in existence, only three or four remained advisory in their powers and duties.[2] To the others had been added executive powers, and they became a part of the state administration.

State departments of public welfare came on the scene about this time, ushering in another important social welfare development. The first department of public welfare was established by Illinois in 1917 as part of the Civil Administration Code. In 1919 Massachusetts reorganized the state government to include twenty departments, among them public welfare, mental diseases, health, and corrections.[3] By 1938 thirteen states had created departments using the term "public welfare."

Passage of the Social Security Act in 1935[4] with its grants-in-aid to the states' child welfare services, public assistance, unemployment compensation, and other services, expanded the role of the state substantially in the areas of health and welfare. In addition to making the state the authority responsible for formulation and administration, it also created the financial incentive for substantial state financing of social welfare services.

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[1] See Sophonisba P. Breckenridge, *Public Welfare Administration in the United States* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938), pp. 237-246.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 273.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 557.

[4] See Chapter 5 for a discussion of the Social Security Act and its influence on voluntary agencies.

VOLUNTARY STATE-WIDE AGENCIES

Voluntary organizations concerned with the development of certain voluntary services and with co-ordination and planning on a state-wide basis accompanied the emergence of the state as the principal government unit for financing, control, and administration of public social welfare services.

An organizational approach to the problem of planning, co-ordination, and promotion of social welfare services on a state level now exists in over forty states. Such state-wide approaches present a variety of patterns which do not lend themselves to simple or clear-cut classification. For the purpose of presentation the following classification is suggested: [5]

a. State organizations which are part of national voluntary agency structure
b. State conferences for discussion and public education
c. State organizations for promotion of specific health and welfare services
d. Comprehensive state-wide organizations for planning and community organization
e. State-wide organizations concerned with federated financing

STATE ORGANIZATIONS OF NATIONAL VOLUNTARY AGENCY STRUCTURE

Agencies in the health field have made the most frequent use of the state as an organizational unit in national agency structure. This pattern is typified by such agencies as the American Cancer Society and the National Tuberculosis Association. These state agencies represent their national organization in dealing with local community units in their fields of service. Other agencies in the health field, such as the American Heart Association and American Social Hygiene Association, in some sections operate through state-wide organizations, but principally depend upon direct relations between the national agency and the local unit. National voluntary agencies in the welfare field now make relatively little use of the state as an administrative unit. The primary pattern is either one of direct local-national relationship or of local relationship to regions or areas larger than states. For example, the National Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations, originally organized on a state basis, has been gradually combining these states into "Area Councils" comprising as many as five states. These larger administrative units make possible better staffing and, consequently, improved services to local units.

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[5] An adaptation of the classification used by Hugh R. Jackson in "State-wide Organization in Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1949,* Margaret B. Hodges, Editor (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1949), pp. 506-512.

STATE CONFERENCES

Every state, with the exception of New Mexico, has a state conference of social work. These conferences, the first of which was organized in Wisconsin in 1881, provide opportunities for workers in different health and welfare agencies and in different communities to come to know each other and to discuss and share experiences concerning both local and state social work issues.[6]

In addition to holding an annual meeting, over half of the state conferences promote regional meetings. This decentralization enables a larger number of interested persons, both lay and professional, to attend the meetings and engage in conference activities. Still further decentralization has resulted from the organization of local chapters by some of the state conferences.

State conferences, largely organized as forums in the beginning, have added some form of social action to their functions in recent years. Many initiate, endorse, or promote social legislation or engage in all three activities. This has come about partly because of the need for some state-wide agency to be concerned with standards and programs, particularly of public social welfare services.

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[6] Joe R. Hoffer, "Conferences of Social Work," *Social Work Year Book, 1951,* Margaret B. Hodges, Editor (New York: American Association of Social Workers, 1951), p. 131.

This departure from the original function has been accompanied in many conferences by the organization of research committees to compile data necessary to the legislative activities. Conferences also engage in a variety of other activities. Some have developed institutes or refresher courses in the various fields of social work. These are usually held just prior to or during the time of the annual meeting. Other activities include operating a speakers' bureau; publishing bulletins and newsletters; organizing study committees in a variety of interests and problems; and offering field advisory services to local communities on problems related to the organization of community chests and councils, campaigns, and budget review procedures.

ORGANIZATIONS FOR PROMOTION OF SPECIFIC HEALTH AND WELFARE SERVICES

State-wide organizations to promote special fields of social welfare have been developed in a number of states. State health councils, state mental hygiene societies, and state commissions on children and youth are illustrative of this type of state-wide organization.

The efforts of the National Health Council have greatly stimulated the development of state health councils. These councils, existing in approximately ten states, serve as educational and co-ordinating agencies in the promotion of public health. The National Health Assembly, meeting in Washington in May, 1948, urged the creation of such health councils in all states.

Separate state mental hygiene societies exist in twenty-six states, and mental hygiene committees, as constituent parts of more comprehensive state-wide organizations, in three others.[7] The principal function of these agencies is to provide general public educational programs regarding causes and prevention of mental diseases.

During World War II, a number of state children and youth commissions came into existence. This growth was encouraged by the National Commission on Children and Youth and the

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[7] A. David Bouterse, "State-wide Organizations in Social Welfare," *ibid.,* p. 515.

United States Children's Bureau. Following the war many of these commissions have continued to function.

The Mid-Century White House Conference on Children and Youth should prove an added stimulus to the development of permanent state commissions on children and youth. Each of the forty-eight states plus Alaska, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands had White House Conference Committees officially appointed or designated by governors. In several states the official state commission or authority undertook the task of planning for the White House Conference. In such instances the activity was added to their regular responsibilities as provided by statute.

State-wide organizations to promote recreation, an outgrowth of the state war recreation committees established on an emergency basis during World War II, are other illustrations of the promotion of a specific service. The war recreation committees served to demonstrate the tremendous value of state recreation machinery. State assumption of responsibility for recreation has taken two major forms: (1) interagency and interdepartmental committees, and (2) a separate commission or department. The latter plan is illustrated by the California Recreation Commission, the North Carolina Recreation Commission, and the Vermont Recreation Board. Washington has a State Parks and Recreation Commission. Interagency state recreation committees function in seventeen states.[8] A number of other states provide services to local communities through various state departments such as Education and Agricultural Extension Service.[9]

STATE-WIDE ORGANIZATIONS FOR PLANNING AND CO-ORDINATION

The involvement of state conferences of social work in planning and social action has already been mentioned. Their effectiveness varies and seems to be related in part to whether or not they have paid, full-time staff with time to devote to planning, research, and promotion.

[8] California has both a Recreation Commission and an Interagency Committee. The commission was created in July, 1947, and the committee in February, 1950.

[9] See "State Recreation Services," *Recreation,* June, 1950, Vol. XLIV, No. 3, pp. 118-136.

A great advance toward effective community organization on a state-wide basis, however, has resulted through the development of separate voluntary state citizens' organizations.

The State Charities Aid Association, founded in New York in 1872, has been concerned with the improvement of legislation and effective public administration in the fields of public health, public relief, mental hygiene, and child care. The second oldest state-wide citizens' organization is the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania. It has devoted itself to influencing legislation and administration in social welfare, mental hygiene, public health, and penal affairs.

In recent years a new surge of interest in such state-wide organizations has been evident. In Ohio and Michigan, in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and in other states, efforts are being made to conserve the gains of World War II years and to move forward in securing a more adequate and well-rounded social welfare program. These state-wide efforts have taken different forms in different states. In some states there are bodies which have interests broader than social welfare, but which include this field as one of their major interests. These include state planning commissions, state councils which are outgrowths of former state defense or war councils, and councils which are related closely to the adult education movement.

STATE-WIDE ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH FEDERATED FINANCING

During the years of World War II practically every community participated in financing war services. Joint financial campaigns were accepted as necessary. Since World War II the number of separate campaigns has increased greatly. The multiplicity of campaigns has made for complexity and confusion. Out of this chaos has come a desire for a more orderly and businesslike method of financing health and welfare services.

Obviously the experience with state war funds influenced the creation of state-wide federated financing organizations. In Michigan, a United Health and Welfare Fund was organized, and the first campaigns scheduled in Michigan counties during February of 1949. A similar fund has been established in Oregon. Arizona has followed the lead of Minnesota which, through the Minnesota Community Research Council, has undertaken to establish standards of approval for any campaign conducted in that state for social or charitable purposes. Other states are interested in bringing the many agencies now making separate financial appeals into federated campaigns. This type of action is likely to increase in the future.

In some states, notably Massachusetts, Michigan, North Carolina and Wisconsin, the executives of local community chests and councils meet in state-wide organizations for the purpose of exchanging information, discussing problems relative to fund raising, social problems, and social planning.

States proved convenient units of organization for war appeals and war services. They may well play the "in-between" role in relating national organizations and services to local communities.

National Organizations

National health and welfare agencies have sometimes been accused of making separate and independent approaches to national and community problems—of "going it alone." On the other hand, there is ample evidence that these national agencies have made persistent efforts to work together on common problems. These efforts have been particularly noticeable in times of national crisis. Thus World War I, the depression years, and World War II were periods in which co-operative planning, financing, and programing by national agencies received great impetus.

Early co-operative activities consisted of informal meetings of national agency executives to discuss common concerns and exchange information. The Committee on Families and Neighborhoods, organized in 1910, the informal meetings of agency executives stimulated by the Russell Sage Foundation, and the National Social Work Council, formed in 1922, served as vehicles for such gatherings.

There was a recognized need on the part of national organizations in the social welfare field for such gatherings. Agencies were dealing with segments of the total social problem. The need was for some synthesis of specializations so that all agencies would gain a better conception of the whole and of the interrelatedness of their services.[10]

As with the state-wide agencies, a classification of the national organizations for planning and co-ordination is not an easy one. For the purpose of this chapter the following categories will be used:

a. National organizations for the promotion of specific health and welfare services
b. National conferences for discussion and public education
c. Organizations concerned with federated financing
d. Comprehensive national organizations for planning and co-ordination

National organizations functioning in or closely related to the field of social work are numerous. The *1951 Social Work Year Book* lists 422 voluntary agencies and 65 governmental agencies. Only some of the major organizations related to planning and co-ordination will be dealt with in the following material.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR PROMOTING SPECIFIC SERVICES

National agencies to study and promote action in a single field of social welfare were among the first to organize.

In 1913 the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association called a conference of thirty-nine health agencies to promote closer co-ordination of services. Reference to the chaotic condition then existing among voluntary health agencies was made by Dr. George Vincent in 1918.[11]

The National Health Council, formed in 1921, has had as its chief purpose the promotion of health throughout the nation by assisting the various members of the council in their activities and in co-ordinating health programs in the interest of efficiency and economy.[12]

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[10] For a thorough discussion of early experiments in co-operation, see Ray Johns, *The Co-operative Process Among National Social Agencies* (New York: Association Press, 1946), pp. 11-33.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

In 1932, representatives of national organizations promoting recreation for youth and adults were requested by the President's Organization for Unemployment and Relief to draft a community program of recreational activities for the unemployed. In 1933 the participating organizations assigned field workers to interpret the program to local communities and state unemployment personnel. The organization of the Civilian Conservation Corps and other developments underlined the need for co-operation in the education-recreation field. This led to the formation of an informal, co-operative group designated as the National Education-Recreation Council.[13] In 1946 the name was changed to the Education-Recreation Council of the National Welfare Assembly.

During World War II a number of co-operative efforts among national agencies came into existence. The Social Case Work Council of National Agencies was organized in 1940, with thirteen member agencies. The organization now known as the Social Case Work Council of the National Social Welfare Assembly embraces nineteen national governmental and voluntary agencies. Only agencies concerned with the development of case work services and the improvement of standards in the social case work field are eligible for membership.

Another World War II product was the United Service Organizations, Inc., popularly known as the U.S.O. The six member organizations were: the Young Men's Christian Association, National Catholic Community Services, National Jewish Welfare Board, Young Women's Christian Association, Salvation Army, National Travelers Aid Association. The U.S.O. was a significant experiment in close, continuous operating relations among six national agencies. In providing its "united service" the organization of necessity developed close relationships with governmental bodies.

The Associated Youth-Serving Organizations, Inc., was another World War II development. Launched in April, 1943, the organization was comprised of seven of the major leisure-time agencies: Boys' Clubs of America, Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts, National Federation of Settlements, National Jewish Welfare Board, National Board of the Y.M.C.A., and the National Board of the Y.W.C.A. Its stated purpose was "to facilitate responsible consultation among the national bodies of youth-serving organizations regarding their relations to children and youth, and their relations to each other in serving such groups, and to provide an agency for joint action in such service. . . ."[14] This organization later became the Youth Division of the National Welfare Assembly.

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[13] *Ibid.*, p. 25.

Several other developments should be noted. Early in 1951 three of the former U.S.O. agencies (Y.M.C.A., National Jewish Welfare Board, and Catholic Community Services) organized the Associated Services for the Armed Forces (A.S.A.F.). After the Korean crisis, the U.S.O. was reorganized, incorporated the A.S.A.F., with the following member agencies: National Board of the Y.M.C.A., National Jewish Welfare Board, National Catholic Community Services, National Travelers Aid Association, National Board of the Y.W.C.A., Salvation Army, and U.S.O. Camp Shows. The United Community Defense Services were also incorporated in 1951 for services to defense-congested communities, with the following member organizations: National Board of the Y.W.C.A., National Organization for Public Health Nurses, National Recreation Association, National Urban League, Child Welfare League of America, National Catholic Community Services, National Federation of Settlements, National Travelers Aid Association, and American Social Hygiene Association.

NATIONAL CONFERENCES

National conferences for discussion, public education, and social action represent a distinct type of co-operative effort on a nation-wide basis. They provide an opportunity for both professional workers and laymen interested in social welfare to come together to discuss common problems and, at times, to engage in social action.

The oldest and one of the most important forces in social work in America is the National Conference of Social Work. It was organized in 1873 as the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The early meetings were primarily composed of representatives of state agencies in what is now known as the field of public welfare. It soon began to expand its representation to include other health and welfare services. Today it deals with social case work, child care, delinquency, the aged, social group work, community organization and planning, public welfare, health, mental health, industrial and economic problems, methods of social action, and administration. In 1917 it adopted its present name. The annual *Proceedings,* published continuously since 1874, have proved a valuable record of social work development in America and attest to the influence of the conference upon social welfare programs and standards. With a membership of 4,500 individuals and 1200 organizations, its size alone is imposing.[15]

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[14] Roy Sorenson, "Associated Youth-Serving Organizations," *Community* (New York: Community Chests and Councils, Inc., November, 1944. Vol. 20, No. 3), p. 3.

The first of the White House Conferences was held in 1909 at the call of President Theodore Roosevelt. Known as the Conference on the Care of Dependent Children, it brought together from all parts of the country leaders in social welfare activities. A recommendation from this Conference resulted in the creation of the United States Children's Bureau in 1912 by act of Congress. The second Conference on Child Welfare Standards convened in 1919. The range of interest was wider and the conference developed standards relating to child labor, the health of mothers and children, the preschool child, the school child, juvenile delinquency, child welfare laws, and treatment of child dependency.

In the 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, the range of subjects considered was still broader than in the 1919 conference. Special attention was directed to the needs of physically and mentally handicapped children. The 1940 Conference on Children in a Democracy continued to broaden its range of subjects. The Mid-Century Conference in 1950 stressed the welfare of children and youth in relation to family and community. The later conferences, especially beginning with 1930, have been characterized by intensive preliminary work by committees.

A more recent national conference of the forum type is the National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency. Held in Washington in November, 1946, under the auspices of the United States Department of Justice, the conference focused attention upon the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency. The manner in which the conference was organized recognized the many-sidedness of the problem. An interdisciplinary approach was emphasized. Panels of experienced personnel were set up in relation to recreation, group work, case work, housing, motion pictures, community organization, the courts, and other phases of the problem. Reports were prepared on each phase, setting forth not only the issues involved and the solutions evolved, but also specific courses of action to be taken, and by whom. In this respect, the conference embarked on a program of social action.

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[15] "National Agencies—Voluntary," *Social Work Year Book, 1951, op. cit.,* p. 620.

FEDERATED FINANCING

Following the organization of the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy in 1913, other community chests and councils began to appear in the large urban centers. A national federation was established in 1918, first called the American Association for Community Organization and later Community Chests and Councils, Inc. Its purpose is "to assist in the development of community organization for health and welfare; and to give service and leadership to local community chests and community welfare councils in joint financing, joint planning, and interpretation of social work. . . ."[16]

The first national federated fund-raising effort to finance the services of different agencies was made by the United War Work Activities Fund during World War I. Organized in 1918, the fund raised money for seven national organizations recognized by the Federal Government to provide religious, welfare, and recreation services to the members of the armed forces. In the Second World War the national voluntary social agencies found joint financing a necessity. In the early days (1941 and 1942) the U.S.O. conducted its own campaigns. Various foreign relief agencies also made separate appeals for funds. The desirability of unifying these appeals was apparent and the National War Fund was created in 1942. The National War Fund raised its money in most communities through campaigns with local community chests.

In 1946 Community Chests and Councils, Inc. (now Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc.) created the National Budget Committee. Its function is to review the budgets of national fund appeals. A subcommittee, the National Quota Committee, was established in 1947 for the purpose of developing bases for local quotas for national campaigns. In April, 1948, the National Quota Committee came under the joint sponsorship of the National Social Welfare Assembly and Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., and later became a part of the National Budget Committee.

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[16] *Ibid.*, p. 605.

The United Defense Fund, Inc., was organized in 1950 to provide a nation-wide body to finance war-related services.

Without doubt financial forces have been strong factors in developing closer relationships among national agencies.

COMPREHENSIVE ORGANIZATIONS FOR PLANNING AND CO-ORDINATION

Nation-wide planning for social welfare services developed primarily out of the work of the National Social Work Council, which was organized in November, 1923, and which is the predecessor of the present National Social Welfare Assembly. As the National Social Work Council, it functioned primarily as a conference body, to exchange information and to provide opportunities for meetings on common problems. The National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., organized in December, 1945, became a council for health and welfare planning.

The purpose of the Assembly is "to provide a means of consultation and conference on social welfare needs and problems; and to provide leadership and facilities for affiliate social welfare agencies and associate groups of agencies and individual members to plan and act together voluntarily in matters of common interest."[17] As of July, 1950, there were fifty-seven affiliate national organizations and five associate groups in the Assembly. Of these, forty-three were voluntary organizations and fourteen, governmental agencies.

A number of other important groups must be mentioned. Reference has already been made to the National Budget Committee sponsored by the National Social Work Assembly and Community Chests and Councils of America. The Committee on Field Service Co-operation, also jointly sponsored by the two organizations, is working at an important aspect of nation-wide services. This committee carries forward the co-operative field service of the former American War-Community Services, Inc., established to meet the needs of war-affected communities during World War II. It originally included the following six organizations: the American Federation of International Institutes, Child Welfare League of America, Family Welfare Association of America, National Organization for Public Health Nursing, National Urban League, National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations. At the present time most of the national voluntary agencies in the Assembly participate in its work.

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[17] Robert E. Bondy, "National Associations in Social Work," *ibid.*, p. 339.

A third committee sponsored jointly by the Assembly and Community Chests and Councils of America is the Committee on Citizen Participation. It is designed to secure broader citizen participation in planning, financing, and operation of welfare services, both nationally and locally.

The joint sponsorship of these committees resulted from the recognition of the many interests which the two bodies have in common. In December, 1947, the Assembly and Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., approved a joint statement of understanding, which defines the field of each and provides for co-operative sponsorship of certain activities. "The Assembly is recognized as the central national planning body for social welfare, and Community Chests and Councils of America as the national spokesman for state and local joint planning for federated support of social welfare programs."[18]

* * *

The development of state-wide and nation-wide organizations for planning and co-ordination of social welfare services is deeply rooted in local communities. It is here that social needs exist and where the first experiments in co-operation were launched to meet community problems. The state and national developments reflect the growing complexity of our society and the inability of single communities to cope adequately with all of their social problems. The move toward co-operative planning at the state and national levels is compounded of many elements, not the least of which has been the recognition of widespread needs, highlighted by crisis situations. World War II not only created new needs but served to bring into sharp relief existing needs to be met on a broader than local community basis. The importance of the state-wide and nation-wide planning and co-ordinating agencies in the social welfare field cannot be denied. They came into existence to meet a need.

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[18] *Ibid.,* pp. 340-341.

11

Steps and Methods of the Community Organization Process

In discussing the community machinery for planning and co-ordination of services, the focus has been on structure. Thus, at this point, some attention to process is in order.

The old social case work formula of "investigation, diagnosis, and treatment" has some pertinency with regard to the basic methods in community organization. For the purpose of this chapter they are identified as (1) fact finding, (2) determination of need, (3) program formulation, and (4) education and interpretation.

Basic Methods and Steps

1. *Fact Finding.* Any sound planning, whether it be in social welfare or in business and industry, must rest on factual information. Too often, planning for social welfare services has been founded on guesses and hunches. This has been true of many direct-service agencies as well as of those having co-ordination and planning as their principal function.

Fact gathering for purposes of community organization should be a continuous process. It should be systematic. Factual information serves to identify needs, to determine the extent to which needs are met; to make known the gaps and overlaps in existing services. Data collected with these aims in mind will tend to help the community organization bodies to bring about better adjustment between needs and resources.

The material in an earlier chapter[1] suggests ways of becoming acquainted with one's community.

The importance of this knowledge cannot be overemphasized. A worker who thoroughly knows his community geographically, ecologically, and demographically, will also become acquainted with general needs of people in the fields of health, welfare, and recreation. It may seem unnecessary to suggest that professional workers first become well acquainted with their communities. On the face of it, such a suggestion appears unnecessary because it is assumed that any worker will naturally be familiar with the arena in which he is to perform. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Ample evidence can be mustered to point to unscientific and piecemeal planning carried through on the basis of insufficient knowledge of the total community.

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[1] See Chapter 3, "Understanding Your Community."

Collecting factual information is the responsibility of all agencies in the general field of welfare. Each operating unit has a responsibility for assembling routine statistics on the volume and cost and characteristics of its services. Such information has a twofold purpose: (a) it serves as a basis for agency planning and (b) it contributes to an understanding of the over-all service picture in the community when made available to the local community council or council of social agencies.

The community organization worker must gain an overview of the total situation in the community. "He wants to know something about the kinds of services, the probable number of people needing these services, the extent to which they are being made available, the gaps and overlaps."[2]

To be of significant value to the planning council the statistical data from the various agencies must be comparable. Beginning in 1930, the U.S. Children's Bureau administered the Registration of Social Statistics Project; in recent years the project has been under the auspices of Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc. The project is designed to collect uniform operating statistics on volume and cost of services of private and public agencies. Many communities use the forms and procedures developed by the project.

The systematic and continuous process of fact gathering may be accelerated by means of intensive studies and surveys.

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[2] C. Whit Pfeiffer, "The Community Organization Worker in Action," *The Job of the Community Organization Worker* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., June, 1948), p. 19.

These studies and surveys occupy an important place in social work planning. They add to the knowledge of a given community, an agency, or a problem, and provide a factual basis for important decisions in administration and in community organization. Some are administrative studies for the purpose of assessing the efficiency of the ongoing programs, and tend to result in recommendations for the improved functioning of agencies. The community survey has a broader objective. It attempts to study the need for social services in the community and define the degree to which these needs are being met by existing programs.

Because of the periodic and intensive nature of surveys and special studies, they tend to focus attention on social problems and stimulate public interest in them. Such studies may arouse a community from its lethargy to take some positive social action.

Community surveys[3] go beyond the fact-finding phase of community organization. The assembled facts are analyzed, an ameliorative program in the form of specific recommendations is proposed, and finally a start is made on interpreting the proposed program to the community by educating those most closely related to the survey.

Thus the survey performs the dual functions of fact finding and community education. To accomplish this the survey process must involve the community through some representative group from the initial planning stage to the final interpretation of the facts.

Present-day social work surveys may deal with the total social work field or be limited to one of the special areas such as health, child welfare, or recreation. Some may even deal with more specific services within a specialization. A recent survey of a community's camping services[4] is an illustration in point.

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[3] An excellent discussion of "Questions to be considered before a survey is undertaken" is presented in *"Shall We Make a Survey?"* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., 1949).

[4] See David F. DeMarche, *Your Camping Program, A Survey of the Camping Program of the Private Youth-Serving Agencies of Albany, New York* (Albany: Albany Community Chest, Inc., and Albany Council of Social Agencies, 1949).

A research specialist[5] in a welfare council, in proposing some principles for "action research in community organization" indirectly suggests that this type of research goes beyond mere fact finding. The research worker believes that the problem for research should stem from a recognized community need, and further that such research should not be undertaken unless there is a broad base of community interest in the problem reflecting a state of readiness for change. One principle states that action research involved recommendations on research findings. Another principle underlines the importance of effective participation in the research process on the part of those who are expected to implement the recommendations.

Thus, "action research," like the community survey, encompasses fact finding, analysis, program formulation, and interpretation. Ernest Greenwood[6] suggests that many current surveys assume the characteristics of "action research."

2. *Determination of Needs.* Once the facts are assembled the community organization worker is faced with the task of helping to define the community problems, determining their acuteness, and deciding which problems warrant concerted community action. Too, the facts about the community will undoubtedly bring to light more than one situation demanding attention and action. Priorities in terms of action must be established among these needs. "In all the welter of community problems, community needs, and requests for service, there is a continuous process of picking and choosing, what we might call selective intake."[7]

It is evident that, in order to select among the competing needs, judgments must be made with regard to (a) relative urgency of needs, (b) those needs most likely to be met through existing or potential resources, and (c) those needs about which there is a state of readiness upon the part of the community which would make change possible. It is easy to

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[5] Genevieve Carter, "Some Principles of Action Research in Community Organization," a paper presented at the National Conference of Social Work in Atlantic City, June, 1950.

[6] "Recent Trends in Social Work Research," *Sociology and Social Research,* March–April, 1951, Vol. XXXV, No. 4, p. 252.

[7] Pfeiffer, *op. cit.,* p. 17.

"lose the cause" by premature action before there is general readiness on the part of those to be affected by a proposed change.

Priorities among the situations calling for attention may be established also by (a) those situations requiring immediate attention, (b) long-range needs upon which action can be postponed, and (c) problems requiring further study before being acted upon. The determination of needs and the establishment of priorities among them requires a sense of timing, and a thorough knowledge of the community and its people.

3. *Program Formulation.* When a problem has been selected for action the time has come to develop a concrete proposal for meeting the need. The program should contain both general objectives and specific objectives. For example, a general objective might be "recreation for all." However, progress is more likely if this general objective can be reduced to quite specific terms and definite steps outlined to achieve the overall objective. Program formulation calls for organizational skills.

4. *Education and Interpretation.* Fact finding, analysis, determination of priorities, development of proposals to meet needs, are merely intellectual exercises if they do not eventuate in action which will benefit the community. It is not enough to develop a program, no matter how scientifically, if it is not put to use. Medical science may discover a wonder drug, but if it does not gain acceptance by the physicians and the patients, it will not benefit humanity. So it is with any program of social amelioration: it must gain acceptance if it is to make its contribution.

Thus, the fourth step in the process of community organization relates to the effort to interpret and educate the public concerned to support the proposed program. Interpretation involves an exposition of the need and an explanation of how the proposed program is to meet the need. One of the major problems in community organization is that of improving and increasing communication.

The problems of interpretation in community organization do not differ basically from those faced by any social agency in the community or by the social actionist. All must be aware of obstacles or opposition to a proposed program. This opposition may be due to vested interests, or to traditional reaction to anything new. Much resistance and frustration, however, is due to lack of full and adequate communication between individuals and between groups. Growth in community understanding of social welfare needs and programs depends to a high degree upon the extent to which those responsible for such growth can effectively set forth needs and then marshall the community behind plans for their realization. Thus, interpretation must lead into mobilization of the resources essential to the fulfillment of the project.

They must also be aware of their various publics. Which are the most important ones with respect to the particular proposal under consideration? How can they best be reached? What media of interpretation should be used? The failure to tell the story properly, or to identify and reach the proper publics, has been the cause of more than one failure to "sell" a program of services. Though it is not within the scope of this chapter to go into a lengthy discussion of interpretation or public relations media, some comment is relevant and important.

One writer suggests a three-way classification of interpretation media: (1) by the spoken word, (2) by the written word, (3) by pictures.[8] Each of these general categories is subdivided into specific media. The spoken word can be utilized in formal meetings, in discussions, in dramatic presentations, on the radio. The written word can tell the story in letters, in bulletins, in reports, in newspapers. The story in pictures can be told via the motion picture, slide films, cartoons, posters, and more recently, television. The community organization worker needs to become familiar with these media and decide which will best serve his purpose.

Many community chests and councils, and some individual agencies in larger cities, have a public relations staff consisting of one or more persons. In most cases, a single person carries the public relations responsibility, either on a full or part-time basis. The presence of such a specialist on the staff should not relieve other professional workers of the responsibility for developing some skills in public relations and interpretation.

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[8] For a thorough discussion of public relations, of the various publics, and of interpretation media, see Helen Cody Baker and Mary Swain Routzahn, *How to Interpret Social Welfare* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947).

Sequence of Steps

The material presented so far in this chapter may lead the reader to the erroneous conclusion that the steps in the process are always clearly separated chronologically, that they follow each other in natural sequence. The picture is not quite so sharply defined. The steps have been presented in logical order for didactic exposition. Some of the steps outlined above may proceed concurrently. For example, interpretation may begin with fact finding. In the case of the community survey as described earlier, a representative group of community citizens constituting the survey committee should be involved in the entire process in such a way as to insure their desire to espouse the recommendations of the survey and put them into action. This will happen only if the facts, and the program arising out of these facts, are interpreted to them as the survey progresses. In a survey, fact finding actually follows a recognition of a problem upon the part of some group of individuals. The individuals recognize a general need but do not have the facts. The purpose of the survey is to garner the data and to present a set of recommendations to meet the needs determined by the facts.

Work with Groups

Throughout the process, the community organization worker must deal with groups of one kind or another. When there is a consciousness of need to the point of demand for action, the community organization worker is moved to take a number of preliminary steps. He must attempt to define the problem and its acuteness. He considers resources which would possibly meet the need. He lists all the groups and interests which may be even remotely concerned with the problem.

O. T. Gilmore[9] suggests a number of steps to be taken in the community organization process, after a need has been recognized:

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[9] O. T. Gilmore, "Definition, Planning, Direction, and Timing of Projects," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work, 1941* (New York: Columbia University Press), p. 591.

> A meeting is called of a small strategy group to decide on the individuals and groups to be approached, and to plan how and by whom the approach should be made.
>
> An organizing session is held which includes all the key leaders—key with reference to the project. The community organization worker gives to this group the ideas which he has formed as a result of his preliminary consideration of the problem. This enables the group to begin working on the various features of the project and undertake responsibility for the planning.
>
> The next steps include the following: decisions as to the need for fact-finding studies or surveys; planning and releasing interpretation material through various communication media, such as the press, radio, and bulletins; decisions as to the plans for the development, allocation, and acceptance of responsibilities for services, based upon the readiness of the community.

C. Whit Pfeiffer,[10] who recognized the committee as a basic tool in community organization, suggests a number of steps in the creation and functioning of a committee to meet a community problem calling for action:

1. Selecting and appointing committee members to insure representation of all the appropriate points of view;
2. Presenting a clear statement of the committee's assignment and the nature of the problem or problems to be considered;
3. Directing the committee's attention to the possible need for help in securing factual information upon which to base decisions;
4. Arriving at conclusions and decisions with regard to a satisfactory solution of the problem.

Regardless of the number of steps necessary, or of the chronological order of these steps, the community organization worker is constantly working with groups. The committee is a device which enables larger groups to move with greater rapidity and productivity. When a project has advanced far enough through the study and planning stages to make participation by a larger group desirable, the group conference proves a useful device. The conference may serve as a sounding board for the thinking of the committee up to that point. The conference group may provide specific information or may render judgments on questions of policy. In any case such conferences serve to educate the larger group and to enlist their support.

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[10] Pfeiffer, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

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The community organization process can become increasingly effective as the specific steps and methods involved are clearly understood and effectively utilized.

12

Types of Local Interagency Relationships

Many types of local interagency relationships are necessary for workers in community social welfare agencies today. This necessity grows out of the great number of agencies and the many types of services described in Chapter 4, the great development of public agency services, and the more inclusive activities of community welfare councils, community chests, and state and national agencies, discussed in Chapters 5, 8, 9, and 10. The increased number of direct-service and interagency bodies has made more relationships inevitable.

Increasing specialization has also made more relationships essential. Specialization, though valuable, has inevitable limitations. Effective working relationships among appropriate agencies offer a useful safeguard against these limitations. "However great the usefulness of specialization, without . . . integration it can reach a point of diminishing returns," one observer wrote. "Specialization tends to grow inward rather than outward, to separate from within into smaller and more intensive specialities. . . ."[1]

Relationships Classified by Agency Workers

A study of interagency relationships maintained by agency workers on behalf of their organization has been conducted by the authors. Questionnaires were sent and replies received from 503 staff members in all types of social welfare agencies in executive, other supervisory, and nonsupervisory positions, from all sections of the country. (The scope and method of the inquiry and the basis of the sampling is described more fully in the Appendix.) Each respondent was asked to list the relationships maintained for his/her organization and to classify them according to a given scale. The weighting of relationships, by the various classifications, may be seen in Table 1 on the following page.

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[1] Stanley P. Davies, "Co-ordinating the Efforts of Agencies Serving the Physically Handicapped," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1941), p. 464.

The 503 agency workers reported 5,524 relationships maintained on behalf of their organizations. A considerable proportion of working time is obviously needed to maintain relationships with other organizations. How important the relationships were considered to be, and how effective they were, according to the participants, is noted in Chapters 14 and 15. It is important to observe here that extensive relationships of all types are evidently maintained by social workers—agency executives, other supervisors, and workers in nonsupervisory positions.

ACQUAINTANCE-INFORMATION RELATIONSHIPS

Workers responding to the inquiry stated that 12.3 per cent of their relationships were those which had primarily been limited to furthering acquaintance with other agency leaders. A larger percentage of relationships, 19.9, were classified as those which resulted in considerable exchange of information with workers in other agencies. Acquaintance and information relationships are generally considered to be more superficial. It is generally assumed that a greater number and a wider range of such relationships are both needed and possible. The data seem to indicate that agency workers—at least those responding to the inquiry—are not satisfied to permit more than a relatively small proportion of their relationships (32.2 per cent) to remain on the acquaintance-information level. Many of the relationships undoubtedly began as acquaintance or information relationships but progressed to more intensive relationships.

It can also be seen from Table 1 that workers in youth agencies and settlements evidently maintain a slightly larger proportion of acquaintance relationships than do workers in child care, family, and health agencies. Health agency workers, on the other hand, report somewhat more information relationships than do workers in other types of agencies.

TABLE 1

CLASSIFICATION OF RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED BY AGENCY STAFF MEMBERS—BY FIELDS OF SERVICE

Classification of Relationships	Maintained by										Total Relationships	
	Children's Agencies		Family Agencies		Health Agencies		Youth Agencies & Settlements		Other Agencies			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Acquaintance: Relationships which have primarily been limited to furthering *acquaintance* with other agency leaders	16	6.8	111	9.6	36	9.3	433	14.7	84	10.5	680	12.3
Information: Relationships which have resulted in considerable exchange of information	49	20.9	202	17.4	83	21.3	570	19.4	196	24.5	1100	19.9
Consultation: Relationships which, in addition to furthering acquaintance and exchanging information, have resulted in *specific consultation* with representatives of other agencies	44	18.8	225	19.4	55	14.1	413	14.1	101	12.6	838	15.2
Planning: Relationships which, in addition to those above, have resulted in *definite planning* with representatives of other agencies	89	38.1	342	29.5	88	22.6	715	24.3	155	19.3	1389	25.2
Operating Responsibility: Relationships which have also resulted in *definite operating* responsibilities with representatives of other agencies	36	15.4	279	24.1	127	32.7	810	27.5	265	33.1	1517	27.4
Totals	234	100.0	1159	100.0	389	100.0	2941	100.0	801	100.0	5524	100.0

CONSULTING, PLANNING, AND OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS

By far the largest proportion of relationships reported, 67.8 per cent, were classified by the agency workers who reported as those which involved specific consultation, definite planning, or operating relationships with representatives of other agencies. Over one half of the total relationships, 52.6 per cent, were planning and operating relationships.

Interagency relationships which involve specific consultation about problems of individuals, families, and the community, and those which go to the point of definite planning must obviously make greater demands on the time and energy of staff members and, in some cases, the funds and other resources of the participating agencies. At the same time, such relationships are more likely to result in identifiable results.

Operating-responsibility relationships very often involve not only agency workers, but the agency itself. Official, formal relationships are sometimes necessary, since financial commitments, joint use and possibly joint ownership of property, public relations, etc., are often associated with such joint responsibilties. It is significant to note that 27.4 per cent of the 5,524 relationships reported were of this type. Close continuous relationships are evidently becoming a general occurrence, rather than an exception.

Some Illustrations of Interagency Relationships

SERVICES FOR THE HANDICAPPED

A co-ordinating service for crippled children was established in the Department of Health in New York City, with an advisory council of recognized leaders in various services to insure community representation and responsiveness. The Committee for the Study and Care and Education of Physically Handicapped Children of the New York City Board of Education also recognized the need for co-ordinating educational and other services to physically handicapped children as indicated in this statement: "To modernize the program and to co-ordinate the various aspects of the work, it appears desirable to have the educational provisions for all groups of physically handicapped children placed under the administration of a single official who is qualified for this position and who is assigned to devote full time to it. It should be the responsibility of this official not only to co-ordinate services within the Department of Education, but also to secure appropriate co-operation from the other city departments, particularly the Department of Health, the Department of Hospitals, and the Department of Public Welfare."[2]

In commenting on the foregoing co-ordinating efforts for the physically handicapped in New York City, Stanley P. Davies pointed out some of the essentials of such joint efforts. "What we need to make sure," he said, "is that co-ordination is not just at the top. The setting up of advisory and co-ordinating councils . . . will serve the intended purpose only when the discussion of common problems translates itself into an interrelated and integrated direct-service program. The practical machinery for co-ordination of local direct service consists of the continuing joint case conference in which the various disciplines come together for the planning and execution of combined action in each particular case. Whether this case conference is held in the hospital, the public school, the public health nursing agency, or the social agency will depend largely on the nature of the handicap and the problems in the particular case.

"Such a plan means unification but not uniformity. It does not discourage specialization and the further development of different professional skills and techniques; on the contrary, it encourages them by integrating them as parts of one program to serve one individual."[3]

SETTLEMENTS AND PUBLIC RECREATION

An experiment in Cleveland between public recreation agencies and privately financed social settlements illustrates another type of interagency relationships. The Neighborhood Settlement Association of Cleveland, formed in 1948 as the joint and central administrative agency for three settlements, approached the co-ordinator of recreation of the Joint Recreation Board of the city of Cleveland and the Cleveland Board of Education about possible joint relationships in an area then

[2] *Ibid.,* p. 468.

[3] *Ibid.*

served by both groups. The Board of Education had been sponsoring a community center at the junior high school in an interracial area, one evening for adults and one for teen-age youngsters, under the direction of untrained, part-time staff. Parents and businessmen had complained about the youngsters' destructive behavior. A few blocks away, one of the settlements participating in the Neighborhood Settlement Association had operated a small settlement branch, with limited program and staff, in inadequate but expensive rented quarters.

A new joint plan was developed. The settlement branch was discontinued. The junior high school became the headquarters for the joint project. The Neighborhood Settlement Association provided a clerical worker and office furniture. Both groups agreed upon the selection of a well-experienced settlement worker as joint director of both parts of the project, one-fourth of whose salary was paid by the Board of Education on a per-session basis and three-fourths by the Neighborhood Settlement Association. Part-time workers for each part of the program were paid by the two groups. The total memberships, interracial and interreligious on all levels, soon grew to over one thousand, two-thirds of them under eighteen. Twenty-five social clubs and twenty-eight recreational interest groups soon developed.

Similar joint projects were later established in other sections of the city, except that different proportions of the director's salary were paid by the participating organizations.

What does such a plan mean to the objectives and functions of the public recreation agencies and the settlements? "We are convinced," the director of the Neighborhood Settlement Association stated, "that it maintains and strengthens both, and increases and improves the actual services to the community, which sees only the total program and is less confused by separate sponsorship." [4]

CASE WORK-GROUP WORK RELATIONSHIPS

Working relationships among case workers and group workers have for years been considered as among the most potentially valuable relationships social workers can develop in the interest of more effective service for individuals. Joint case conferences, such as those referred to earlier in relation to work with the physically handicapped, have been utilized in many communities. Referrals between case workers and group workers have also been utilized to an increasing degree. Three general categories of case work-group work relationships have been identified: (1) the supplementary type, where case workers or group workers utilize in their own program techniques usually needed in the "other" field; (2) the referral type; (3) the integrated type, where case workers and group workers jointly provide the needed service.[5]

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[4] Henry Ollendorff, "Public Recreation and Settlements," *Recreation,* December, 1950 (National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York), p. 391.

The referral process was analyzed by the Case Work-Group Work Committee of the Greater Boston Community Council in 1948–49. Their report stated the common objectives of case work and group work in these terms: "Case work and group work both seek to stimulate people to achieve the best possible adjustment to life. These processes are socially creative and disciplined in that they require interaction between the person and the human situation."[6] Case work and group work were both described and ways in which each can make use of the other's services were outlined.

Suggestions were made for case workers referring persons to group workers. Average persons may be referred to provide opportunities to make normal separation from parental environment, to enrich life by helping individuals learn how to get on with other people, to assume citizenship responsibilities, learn self-respect and respect for others, and awareness, appreciation, and acceptance of social and religious differences. Individuals without special problems may also be referred to help counteract environmental factors which might lead to individual breakdown, or to help satisfy an individual's special interests. People with special needs can be referred, when their capacities and readiness to enter a group indicate possible help from selected and guided group relationships. It was suggested that persons unable to relate to others and those who would endanger the health and safety of other individuals in a group should ordinarily not be referred. The types of information the case worker should obtain regarding the group work services, necessary steps in the referral process and follow-up procedures were also outlined.

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[5] *Group Work-Case Work Co-operation,* a symposium sponsored by the American Association of Group Workers (New York: Association Press, 1946), pp. 18-19.

[6] *Considerations and Steps in Making Referrals Between Case Work and Group Work* (Greater Boston Community Council, reorganized in 1949 as part of the United Community Services of Metropolitan Boston, Inc.), February, 1949, mimeographed, p. 1.

Group work-to-case work referral considerations and steps were also suggested. Families or individuals who request help with personal or social problems beyond the function and resources of the group work services should be referred, it was agreed, for case work service. Consultations should be held between the group workers and case workers regarding possible referral of families or individuals whose behavior becomes a matter of concern to the workers, but whose need of referral to a case work agency is in doubt. In exceptional cases, where instances of cruelty, neglect, or dangerous psychotic behavior is evident, referrals may be made to an appropriate case work agency, even without the consent of the individuals involved. Ordinarily, individuals who present problems but who have indicated that they are determined not to accept such help, ought not to be referred. Some problems can be dealt with best by the group worker, in the group work setting, sometimes in consultation with a case worker. Steps for referrals to case work agencies, outlined by the study committee, can be noted in the document listed in Footnote 6.

The basic factors involved in case work-group work relationships have been outlined as follows: "First, a recognition that we have common objectives and are working toward the same end . . . to help people to the most satisfactory personal and social adjustment. Second, a recognition that we are on common ground in that we are serving the same communities and many of the same kinds of people in them, and since this is true, that we make a more significant contribution if we work together than if we work independently . . . third . . . fundamental concepts as the confidential nature of material exchanged, use of such material only as it relates to dealing with the individual in a professional relationship, a nonjudgmental attitude based on recognition of causative factors in behavior, and the right of self-determination of the individual. . . . A fourth factor necessary to the working out of co-operative relations is that we keep the focus of attention and effort on the individual and not upon the service to the other agency or the workers in it. . . . A fifth factor . . . was a feeling of respect for and confidence in the effectiveness of the contribution of one's own field. . . . The sixth factor . . . is an appreciation of and respect for the contributions of the other's work which result in a wish to learn about it. . . ."[7]

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CAMPS AND OTHER AGENCIES

Camps have been utilized as a means of supplementary services and referrals made to them by a number of health and other social welfare agencies. Placement for children under medical care has been a special focus of attention in a number of cities. In Chicago, placement of children whose camping experience has been subsidized by the community fund, has been under the direction of a worker provided by the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, assisted by an interagency committee. Adequacy of summer camping facilities for handicapped children has been studied by a committee of the Camp Section of the Neighborhood Houses and Youth Agencies Division of the Greater Boston Community Council (now part of United Community Services). Interagency referral and report forms were developed.

CO-OPERATIVE SERVICES FOR UNMARRIED MOTHERS

The way in which a number of cities have developed co-operative services for unmarried mothers illustrates a set of interagency relationships in another field. For example, in Chicago, the Welfare Council, after years of study of the problem, requested the United Charities of Chicago, the major family case work agency in the city, to establish a specialized service. The Woman's Service Division was organized, and co-operative arrangements were set up with all agencies dealing with the problem. If a Catholic, Episcopal, or Jewish client applies, she is informed about the sectarian agency available. Working arrangements are maintained with medical and health agencies, maternity homes and shelters, the Juvenile Court, and Court of Domestic Relations, and with children's agencies for service in connection with adoptive placement and long-time foster care.

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[7] Mary Hester and Dorothy G. Thomas, "Case Work and Group Work Co-operation," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1939), pp. 339-341.

This centralized, specialized service has resulted, it is reported, in a general improvement in case work service and planning for unmarried mothers, in a greater knowledge and skill by case workers in using community resources, and in a general improvement in co-operative relationships between agencies.

CIVIL DEFENSE RELATIONSHIPS

Civil defense planning, in a number of cities, has furthered interagency relationships. In Cleveland, during World War II, the Welfare Council took the leadership in civil defense planning, and voluntary agencies and tax-supported agencies worked closely together. When the Korean crisis and other aspects of the international situation stimulated civil defense plans, co-operative planning of emergency social services quickly developed again. For example, in Boston an executive committee for the social services division of the Civil Defense Organization, composed of representatives of the Department of Public Welfare, the American Red Cross, and the United Community Services, was established. Each section—information and referral, census, evacuation, emergency, social services, financial aid, and emergency housing—was headed by a chairman and two vice-chairmen from each of the three groups, with the chairman appointed from the group which would most appropriately take the primary responsibility. A crisis situation, when the resources of all agencies are obviously needed, usually gives considerable impetus to joint efforts.

VISITING NURSE AND SOCIAL CASE WORKER CO-OPERATION

An investigation of the methods and channels by which two important family services might become more effective in their joint effort for furthering the health and well-being of families both were serving was made through the co-operation of the

Family Service Association and the Visiting Nurse Association of Cleveland.[8]

The common goals of the two organizations were summarized as follows: "They both aim at the maximum good of the basic unit of the community, the family. They are concerned with the family's health as well as its social adjustment. They deal with people in need, work for the good of the whole community, and are supported by citizens. In both fields the workers have an intimate relationship with the family, the client asks for counsel on a variety of personal matters, and the work is based on knowledge derived from common sources such as medicine, psychiatry, and education. Both professional groups use the interview as a tool and keep records of their work. . . . Social case work may be utilized whenever people's satisfaction in their ordinary relationships has disappeared. . . . The helping process of social case work consists of three important steps: study of the problem, establishing the social diagnosis, and treatment. In order to help, the worker must know the needs and resources of the client's total situation as well as the weaknesses and strengths of his individual personality. . . . The public health nursing profession has also been sharpening its tools and revising its objectives. The original function of providing bedside care for the sick in their homes has been extended to include the prevention of illness and promotion of health. . . . Often [the public health nurse] may find health problems other than those for which she was called. To render effective service to the individual she has to consider the health and the relationships of the family as a whole. . . . The nurse instructs individuals according to their specific needs and their ability to use health information. . . . She attempts to evaluate attitudes and relationships within the family which may be operating for or against satisfactory care." [9]

Eight of the thirty-seven cases referred by the Visiting Nurse Association to the Family Service Association in 1946 were studied. The eight cases were selected from those which were accepted for major case work service and were those which were new to the F.S.A. in 1946. These cases were closed by January 31, 1948.

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[8] Annikki M. M. Ahla, *Referred by Visiting Nurse* (Cleveland: The Press of Western Reserve University, 1950).

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 1-3.

The analysis of the cases made clear the differences in original emphases, the barriers which arise, and the steps toward mutual understanding and co-operative work. The social case workers were described as "psychosocial practitioners" who deal with people in trouble, "enablers" who help clients understand their situation better and use available resources. Public health nurses help restore the sick, alleviate suffering, and prevent disease. The training is different. Lack of mutual understanding of each other's goals and methods, and neglect of the principle of a two-way channel were noted as the chief barriers to effective relationships. Steps toward mutual understanding were identified as (1) information about each other during the period of professional training, (2) staff education inside an agency, (3) interagency activity. The study concluded that "two agencies with common interests and goals certainly are interested in co-operation. The definite differences in their functions do not diminish this interest. On the contrary, it may be through these differences that both may work out professional co-operative relationships and effectively serve those who need their help." [10]

JOINT AGENCY CAPITAL FUND EFFORTS

Joint efforts in a number of communities to secure capital funds for new facilities or to improve and expand existing structures represent an important set of relationships. In San Francisco a number of youth agencies, including the Y.M.C.A., the Boy Scouts, and the Boys' Clubs, conducted a joint capital fund effort in 1948. They thus reduced the number of campaigns, and although the total goal was not reached in the first effort, it was possible for them, according to reports, to secure contributions from corporations which would have opposed separate campaigns. Rochester, New York, conducted a successful joint Y.M.-Y.W.C.A. capital effort in 1947.

JOINT AGENCY COMMUNITY CENTERS

Community centers, jointly sponsored and managed by two different agencies have been experimented with in a number of communities, following the U.S.O. Joint Agency operations of World War II.

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[10] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

Windsor, Ontario, Kansas City, Missouri, Seattle, Washington, and Ridgewood, New Jersey, have had community youth centers under the joint auspices of the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A.

The Greenwood Youth Center in Boston, started as a World War II youth project, has functioned under the combined auspices of the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. for a number of years. The board of neighborhood people is a combined Y.M.-Y.W.C.A. board, appointed by and responsible to both sponsoring organizations. Technically, it is a branch of both organizations, but it functions as a single entity. The staff is a single staff, responsible to the director, who in turn is jointly responsible to the senior executives of the Y.W.C.A. and the Y.M.C.A. The organizations join in annual approaches to a local foundation for support of the center, and both provide the necessary supplementary funds in equal amounts. The experience of both organizations is thus made available, as far as possible, for service in the neighborhood.

The experience in different cities has varied. In one city several experiments were started, but one was discontinued because the identity of the two agencies seemed to be lost. The other efforts in that city, functioning under more favorable conditions, have continued. In another city, the staff situation was unsatisfactory to both agencies for a time but later was changed, and relationships improved. In another city, joint title to all property was worked out, and working relationships regarding board and staff responsibility, finances, program, and other aspects of the work were agreed upon in advance. Joint operation involves close and sometimes complicated relationships. A great deal of similarity in objectives and methods, and considerable flexibility, are needed. It is one of the ways by which integration of experience and service may be achieved. Further experimentation, objectively evaluated, seems merited.

RELATIONSHIPS WHICH RESULTED IN A MERGER

Close relationships, based on increasingly common purposes and services, resulted in one community in a merger of two separate organizations. The Hampden County Children's Aid

Association and the Family Service Association of Springfield, Massachusetts, had operated for over seventy years as separate organizations. As each agency came to develop a rounded program for families and children, and as they participated together for years in community planning and in joint fund raising, informal discussions developed about the desirability of merging their services. A joint committee studied statements of the aims, philosophies, and services of the two agencies. They investigated the results from a merger in a near-by community and considered legal and financial problems of amalgamation. The staffs were kept informed and were consulted. The joint committee came to the conclusion that merger services would (1) provide better service because the client's whole problem could be considered; (2) more flexibility would result in the combined budget, and better use of the community dollar would thus result; (3) better administration would be possible through combined case records, clerical services, and broader opportunities for staff members.

Interagency relationships, it should be emphasized, are not necessarily forerunners of mergers. In fact, most relationships should probably not result in merged services. Agency individuality has been one of the most valuable aspects of American community social welfare services. But effective relationships among different agencies dealing with the same people, and working on similar community problems, are necessary When, in exceptional cases, the aims and services of two or more agencies are found to have become fundamentally the same, such as with child care and family agencies, mergers can well be considered. Interagency relationships should not be considered a threat to agency identity. They are one of the necessities of modern community social welfare services. Through them, an agency's special emphasis and individualized service can be made most effective.

* * *

The many types and patterns of local interagency relationships which exist in most communities are an inevitable outgrowth of the many types of services and the useful specializations which are available today. Through such relationships, all available resources can be focused on the varied but related needs of individuals and families.

In addition to these many local relationships, most social agencies must work co-operatively with similar organizations in other communities. This is usually done through national associations and organizations. These local-national relationships will next be considered.

13

Patterns of Local-National Relationships

RELATIONSHIPS among a community's social welfare agencies, discussed in the preceding chapters, are influenced to a considerable degree by local-national patterns of relationships. These relationships among local and national agencies also influence the adequacy of local and nation-wide social welfare services.

Importance of National Forces and Planning

National forces and developments affect social welfare programs in vital ways. Political, economic, and social changes influence the lives of people and the needs they face. For example, the responsibility of government for the general welfare, as described in Chapter 5, has radically changed. For decades state and federal legislation has extended aid and provided more controls over industry and agriculture, through bodies such as the Federal Trade Commission and the Federal Reserve System, and through tariff and taxation policies. Today's federal and state legislation provides insurance for old age, insurance compensation, public assistance, veterans' services, public housing, research in killing diseases, aid to education. Population changes influence the need for schools, for child care services, for programs for aged people; extension of the employment age and wider provision of retirement benefits become necessary. Increased mechanization of industry and agriculture, labor-management agreements for health and welfare services and pension plans, even the spread of nation-wide criminal organizations and syndicates, result in profound changes in the lives of individuals and of communities.

A "social lag" can quickly develop under such rapidly changing conditions. "The changing times [can] pass our planning by, leaving our financing and our program plans addressed to a time gone by."[1] Local direct-service agencies and their national organizations, and local and national social welfare planning groups must be constantly alert to adjust their plans and their services to changing national conditions.

Nation-wide planning, with close and continuous working relationships among national private and public agencies, among local agencies, and among national and local agencies of all kinds, has become essential. Local conditions and nation-wide forces and developments must all be taken into account.

LOCAL-NATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS COMPLICATED

Relationships between local and national agencies have become varied and complicated in recent years. National social and economic forces have made national relationships essential for most local agencies. These same forces have also made strong national agencies more necessary. Local agencies have come to depend on many different services from their national organizations. They also expect that national policies will be based on local needs as well as on forces beyond their local community. What national policies are developed and how they are formulated and adopted are important to local agencies. The amount of funds needed for national services and how they are secured influence relationships between them. Local planning processes among different agencies and the bearing of national policies and standards upon them are also important. Service relationships, financial relationships, planning and policy relationships have become varied and complicated.

Existence of Different Patterns

Patterns of relationships between local affiliates and their national organizations differ greatly. In some agencies, relationships are close and continuous. In some agencies, the national organization exerts great influence on their local units. In some, local units have a strong voice in national policies and actions.

[1] Robert E. Bondy, "Interrelationships of Local, State, and National Planning," in *The Assembly Letter,* July, 1949, National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., pp. 11-12.

The patterns vary for a number of reasons. Some national agencies have greater resources than others. They are well financed, have large and experienced staffs; the services they can provide for their local units are varied and of high quality; their participation in national affairs is effective and influential. Other national agencies have less adequate financial resources, less adequate staff and less effective services. The patterns also vary because of the degree of influence and control national agencies have over their local units and, conversely, the degree of influence local affiliates have in the affairs of their national organization. In some agencies, local units are quite independent; few national policies are adopted regarding local services, and those which are adopted are optional to local units. In other agencies, some national requirements exist, but considerable freedom is given to local units. In some agencies, national policies and procedures are obligatory for their local affiliates.

Such differences among agencies in their local-national relationships are due, in part at least, to the different ways national agencies developed. Some national agencies came into existence as federations of already established local agencies. They were created by local agencies, usually through national meetings called to exchange local experience. National committees were organized to carry interim responsibilities; later more formal organization developed, staffs were added, more responsibilities were allocated to them, and more authority granted. At first, such federations had little if any authority over local units. Other national organizations were created before local member units were organized, and control over the national organization, and over local units through a chartering process, was retained. Uniform policies and programs usually developed. A mixture of local and national influence and controls has been developing in recent years in most national organizations, both those which began as federations of established local agencies and those which began as national organizations.

The different patterns of relationships have been influenced by ethical and religious emphases in some of the organizations. The organizations which have a Christian background, both Protestant and Catholic, and those which have a Jewish background, tend to establish relationships which reflect the structure and impelling motives of their religious heritage.

Several common problems are inherent in these different patterns of local-national relationships. In local planning it is difficult to take adequate and timely account of emerging national forces and new developments. It is also difficult to bring local problems and experience to bear on nation-wide planning. Underlying these two difficulties are two fundamental issues:

1. Can mutual participation and consent be made the actual basis of relationships, without undue compulsion being used: for example, budget review processes may be used as a force to produce action; majorities may determine decisions, but the problems of minorities may continue, or minorities combine to form new compulsive majorities. The differences among local and national social welfare agencies, like differences in the broader American culture, have added richness to services in American communities; agency pluralism, like other aspects of cultural pluralism, can well be preserved.
2. Another fundamental problem in local-national relationships is that of communication. Distances between many local communities and national agency offices are great. All parties involved cannot always participate personally when problems are faced and decisions made. Channels of communication are often inadequate; written words have sometimes limited capacity to convey important differences of attitude or points of view. Communication is essential to sound interpersonal and intergroup relationships, but it is particularly difficult to achieve when distance intervenes.

National Agency Services to Local Communities

National agency services have deep roots in local soil. National agencies were created primarily to meet needs of people in local communities. The services they provide are for the benefit of people in local communities, either directly or through local member agencies.

Most national agencies function through local member units. Some of the most useful services of national agencies are in the area of program. They include formulation of program objectives and standards, preparation of program materials, and other publications, transmitting experience from other communities, and technical consultation on local problems. Personnel standards, job classifications, and general salary schedules are developed. Qualified workers are recruited, training programs are established, and placement and induction services are operated. National supply and equipment and central purchasing services are helpful to many local units. Research into basic problems relating to the work of the organizations, as well as to their program and administration, has made a fundamental contribution to new knowledge. Many of the most useful national agency services are provided through national field and consultant staff members. More than 500 field workers are related to agencies connected with the National Social Welfare Assembly. These field workers consult on local program and administrative problems, give assistance on specialized problems, help study changing local needs and help devise changing patterns of services and relationships, plan and direct regional conferences, advise on important personnel matters. Such services to local member units are important ways to strengthen local services.

Significant Participation of Many Local Agencies in National Agency Services

In many agencies with a high degree of local control or of mixed local-national control, the local agencies participate significantly in national agency services. Local representatives constitute a majority not only in the national conventions or councils but also on the interim governing boards. They help establish standards for local unit membership in the national organization; they review and approve the national budget; they formulate and adopt national policies and supervise national services. Local agencies make their experience available through their national organizations to other communities. They participate, on occasion, in useful research projects. Such local agencies, through their representatives, exercise considerable control over their national bodies. Their national boards and councils represent the interests of the nation-wide organization, including the local affiliates.

LOCAL PARTICIPATION AND SUPPORT VITAL

Local participation in the work of national agencies is vital, if national agencies are to be responsive to local community needs.

Local support of national agency services, by member units and by community chests, is also necessary, if adequate national services are to be made available. A group of chest and agency representatives who studied chest-agency relationship problems stated, "Soundly planned, co-operatively developed national budgets must be supported by local communities, in proportion to their ability. . . ." [2]

Increased Co-operation Among National Agencies

Co-operative relationships among national agencies began as early as 1910, when informal meetings of national agency executives were held to exchange information and discuss mutual problems. In 1920 a more inclusive group of executives began to meet and in 1922 they formed the National Social Work Council. In 1921 the National Health Council was organized. The United War Work Campaign was a joint national effort to finance the war services of different organizations. Local-national consultations between national organizations and local community chests began in the years following and continued intermittently through the next two decades.

The depression years of the 1930's further stimulated joint efforts. A United Educational Campaign, representing a number of national organizations, focused on joint interpretation of increased social welfare needs and increased mutual understanding. The National Education-Recreation Council, established in 1933, increased co-operative relationships among recreation and informal education agencies. The committee on Care of Transient and Homeless became a clearinghouse and planning body, from 1933 to 1938, for people moving from one community to another.

Co-operative activity expanded further during the years of World War II. The U.S.O. became an important venture in many types of close operating relationships among six different national organizations. It included not only joint fund raising, but joint planning to determine distribution of services, to formulate and adopt policies under which they were to be operated, and to provide definite accountability to each other and to the co-ordinating body they created. Close working relationships were established with government officials and with local community leaders. In the American War-Community Services, Inc., six national associations joined to meet the needs of war-affected communities through co-operative field service. In the Associated Youth-Serving Organizations, Inc., seven national agencies planned and worked together on behalf of youth. The National Committee on Service to Veterans, with nineteen organizations that served veterans participating, developed material on community services for veterans, veterans' information centers, transient veterans, and veterans' housing. The National War Fund federated fund raising for national and international purposes.

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[2] *Toward Improved Chest-Council Agency Relations,* Sidney Hollander, Chairman, Joint Committee of Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc. and National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc. (New York: Association Press, 1951), p. 26.

National Social Welfare Assembly: A significant development for co-operation in social welfare was represented in the reorganization of the National Social Work Council into the National Social Welfare Assembly late in 1945. It became the central national organization for social welfare, paralleling in purpose, structure, and activities, the local community welfare councils. The Assembly, its leaders state, has three functions: (1) to facilitate more effective operation of organized social welfare; (2) to study and define social welfare problems and human needs, and to develop plans of action to meet those problems and needs; and (3) to act in behalf of social welfare where representation of its interests is indicated. The Assembly maintains functional councils, having associated most of the previously established councils with it as divisions. It conducts conferences on social welfare needs and on specific problems. It has become the central national planning body for social welfare.

Problems of Local "Horizontal" and Local-National "Vertical" Relationships

Local agencies maintain a variety of relationships with other agencies in their community. These are sometimes referred to as "horizontal" relationships. National-local relationships, particularly in agencies where strong national influence is exerted on local units, are sometimes called "vertical" relationships. Whether or not the national organizations have definite authority, or even considerable influence over their local affiliates, the local-national, or "horizontal-vertical" relationships sometimes seem to be in conflict with each other.

In some agencies, both local and national leaders encourage local interagency relationships, both with other direct-service agencies and with interagency, federated-financing bodies. Such interagency relationships are encouraged by most federated-financing groups. Some local agency leaders, however, regard interagency planning and co-ordination as a limitation on their work. Some national agency leaders also look with serious question on the influence on their local affiliates of local interagency bodies. When local "horizontal" and national-local "vertical" pressures come into conflict, tensions often develop.

Some of these complications of "horizontal-vertical" relationships were identified and discussed in a recent chest-council agency relationships report.[3] The problems apparently develop out of relationships pertinent to organization-structure, finance, program-service, and interpretation. The following summary of problems identified and suggestions made (presented more adequately in the report referred to above) indicate the type of difficulties which have developed in some communities.

Problem	*Suggestions*
1. Some chests and councils, it was reported, do not understand the relationships of local affiliates to their national organization.	1. Local affiliates should inform their chest leaders, during budget reviews and on other occasions, of the structure and policies which govern or guide them. Chest-council people, on the other hand, should inform themselves of national agency policies and procedures.
2. Lack of agency understanding and acceptance of chest-council policies has been a source of	2. Both chests and agencies should define their policies and make them known. National agencies

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[3] *Ibid.*

tension and difficulty in some communities.	should encourage their local affiliates to participate in local planning activities and help them learn how to participate effectively.
3. The functions and responsibilities of agency boards and their freedom to discharge those responsibilities, together with the extent of the authority of the chest, need clarification.	3. Agencies must be free to operate, within mutually-determined plans. Chests must also meet their responsibility for helping achieve balance and quality of service.
4. It is believed, in some chests and councils, that the policies of some national agencies are developed without proper regard for local needs and without adequate consultation with local agencies and local planning bodies.	4. Local participation in formulation of national policies is highly desirable. Probably more such local participation now exists than some chests realize. National standards are useful, but joint planning has great values.
5. Channels of communication between chests and councils and national organizations are not always understood. For example, should national organizations always deal with local communities only through their local affiliate? Should chest-council leaders deal with national agency leaders only through local affiliates? How can local "trouble spots" be handled?	5. Relationships between local chest-council leaders and national agencies will ordinarily be carried on through, or in consultation with the local member agency. Exceptions may prove necessary in extreme cases. National agency and chest-council workers do need contacts with each other.
6. Financial problems—inadequate funds for agency services; unsatisfactory budget review procedures; supplementary agency fund raising for operating budgets, etc.—sometimes create difficulties.	6. Competent fund-raising campaigns; thorough, fair budget reviews; agency support of community fund-raising campaigns; increased client-member support of services; agreement on membership-support efforts are among the essential factors underlying satisfactory financial relationships.
7. Disregard for balance of local services sometimes seems to complicate local-national rela-	7. Progress toward a balance of services is basic to sound community life and to chests and

tionships. Both national agencies and local chests have, on occasions, seemed to impose goals, standards, budgets, etc. without adequate regard for balance of services and without adequate consultation.	agencies. Understanding and good will are basic. Joint planning must be a continuous process, based on sound facts regarding community needs, with priorities for development mutually determined.
8. How can normal development of new services and growth of existing services be furthered?	8. Pioneering, based on imaginative planning, must be encouraged, the study committee reported. But orderliness in meeting human needs, within the resources of a community, is also necessary.
9. How can higher standards of performance and practice be encouraged? How can national agencies best deal with "substandard" affiliates? How can chests and councils avoid indefinite continuation of marginal-need and low-standard services?	9. Basic standard setting for program and personnel is a responsibility of national organizations. The primary local responsibility is to determine the extent and quality of services provided. Mutual responsibility is involved.

The problems and suggestions for solution summarized above indicate some of the complications involved in the "horizontal-vertical" sets of relationships inherent in the pattern of social welfare services which exist in most communities. Both sets of relationships have great value. Both are necessary to effective functioning of most local agencies. The solution to such problems of relationships rests primarily in the fact that local member agencies of national organizations, their national leadership, and the persons with special responsibility for community-wide planning and joint financing of services in local communities have a basic concern—effective services to people in local communities. Many of the agencies have special purposes of their own; they use different methods; they provide different services. But they have so much in common, as each agency provides some vital part of the community's total service program for people, that such current problems should be made the focus of continuous study. When agencies respect differences in function, in method of approach, and in type of service, community life is strengthened.

Continued Study and Experimentation Needed

One of the most encouraging aspects of the obviously complicated and unsatisfactory situation of local-national relationships is the candid examination to which these relationship practices have been submitted in recent years. Considerable progress has been made, as representatives of local agencies have frankly discussed the problems which handicap their effectiveness. National agency leaders and chest-council leaders have developed more understanding of each others' points of view and of each others' difficulties.

Conferences of national agency field directors, held under the auspices of the Committee on Field Service Co-operation of the National Social Welfare Assembly, and the Health and Welfare Planning Committee of Community Chests and Councils, have made progress toward identifying principles for more effective working relationships with local welfare planning groups. A group of local council recreation-group work secretaries have worked on a similar formulation of principles to guide relationships.

* * *

Further steps will be needed. Exploration through discussion may need to progress to study based on carefully assembled facts. Experimentation with revised patterns and with new patterns of national-local agency relationships, of chest-member agency relationships, of national interagency planning processes will be needed in the years that lie ahead.

14

An Analysis of Interagency Relationships

THE NECESSITY for interagency relationships has been discussed in earlier chapters, and reference has been made to the questionnaire study on community relationships.[1] This chapter will be devoted to a further analysis of the replies as they may furnish answers to the following series of specific questions.

The Volume and Range of Interagency Relationships:

1. How important, in terms of volume, is the matter of interagency relationships? What is the volume of relationship maintained?
2. With what kinds of organizations do staff members establish relationships?
3. With what kinds of organizations do lay leaders maintain relationships?
4. Does the size of the city affect the number of relationships maintained by agency personnel?
5. Do workers in various staff positions tend to differ in the number of relationships maintained?

Types and Effectiveness of Interagency Relationships:

6. What types of relationships are maintained by persons in the various staff levels, i.e., executive, other supervisory and nonsupervisory positions?
7. What is the relative effectiveness of the relationships maintained?
8. Do differences in ratings of effectiveness by staff members exist by size of city?

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[1] See the Appendix for explanatory note on method, questions asked, basis of sampling, etc.

9. How do the ratings of effectiveness assigned to relationships maintained by board and other lay leadership compare with the ratings of the relationships maintained by staff members?

Each of these questions will be considered separately. Additional questions relating to the development of criteria and policies for establishing and maintaining interorganization relationships will be posed and answered in Chapter 15. Pertinent data from the questionnaire study will be used.

* * *

The Volume and Range of Interagency Relationships

1. How important, in terms of volume, is the matter of interagency relationships? What is the volume of relationships maintained?

Frequently one hears agency personnel lament the necessity of spending so much time in interagency meetings. Often the laments take forms like these: "I just wasted two hours," or "I don't know why I go to those meetings; we never do anything." Or they are appreciative but perplexed, "These meetings are useful, but they do take a lot of time." What is the truth of the matter? Do staff persons devote time to unprofitable relationships?

The data in Table 2 reveal that 503 staff persons maintained 5,524 interorganization relationships. This is an average of eleven relationships per worker. To be sure, not all workers carry the same number of relationships. There is a very wide range. For example, a supervisory staff person in a city of over 500,000 population reports only one interagency relationship, whereas a nonsupervisory worker in a city with a population of between 100,000 and 250,000 lists fifty-seven relationships!

How is an average of eleven relationships per worker to be translated into man hours—the time demand on the worker? It is quite impossible here to give a definite answer to this question. There are so many unknown factors in the equation. A relationship requiring only a few hours per month in actual meetings may demand untold hours of thinking and planning. Other relationships may involve only limited time. Regardless

TABLE 2

RELATIONSHIPS REPORTED BY AGENCY STAFF MEMBERS BY SIZE OF CITY AND BY POSITIONS

Size of City	Executives			Other Supervisory Personnel			Non-supervisory Personnel			Total		
	Number Reporting	Relationships Reported		Number Reporting	Relationships Reported		Number Reporting	Relationships Reported		Number Reporting	Relationships Reported	
		No.	Av.		No.	Av.		No.	Av.		No.	Av.
Over 500,000	17	237	13.9	27	269	10.0	24	206	8.6	68	712	10.5
250,000 to 500,000	32	400	12.5	34	289	8.5	37	357	9.6	103	1046	10.2
100,000 to 250,000	61	747	12.2	50	484	9.7	54	561	10.4	165	1792	10.9
50,000 to 100,000	47	666	14.2	41	463	11.3	28	340	12.1	116	1469	12.7
Under 50,000	22	267	12.1	17	157	9.2	12	81	6.8	51	505	9.9
Totals	179	2317	12.9	169	1662	9.8	155	1545	10.0	503	5524	11.0

of the specific amount of time necessary to carry any one relationship, it is certain that an accurate record of the sum total of hours and energy involved in interorganizational relationships in any given community would be impressive.

2. *With what kinds of organizations do staff members establish relationships?*

The 5,524 relationships reported by professional workers were with 268 different agencies and groups of agencies representing a rich variety of organized community life. For purposes of analysis, a number of more inclusive categories were used: children's agencies, family agencies, health agencies, recreation agencies and community centers, public agencies, interagency organizations including chests and councils, professional organizations, civic groups, churches, schools and libraries, and others. The distribution of the relationships by these categories and by city size is given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERAGENCY RELATIONSHIPS BY BROAD CATEGORIES AND BY CITY SIZE

Categories	City Size											
	Over 500,000		250,000–500,000		100,000–250,000		50,000–100,000		Under 500,000		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Children's Agencies	28	3.9	48	4.6	67	3.7	59	4.0	11	2.2	213	3.9
Family Agencies	33	4.6	47	4.5	118	6.6	80	5.4	17	3.4	295	5.3
Health Agencies	44	6.2	102	9.8	143	8.0	132	9.0	24	4.7	445	8.1
Recreation & Community Centers	115	16.2	151	14.4	277	15.5	214	14.6	84	16.6	841	15.2
Public Agencies	69	9.7	121	11.6	209	11.7	208	14.1	71	14.1	678	12.3
Interagency Organizations	110	15.4	165	15.8	243	13.5	195	13.3	58	11.4	771	14.0
Professional Organizations	78	11.0	92	8.8	157	8.8	88	6.0	22	4.4	437	7.9
Civic Groups	84	11.8	105	10.0	179	10.0	169	11.5	89	17.6	626	11.3
Churches	32	4.5	61	5.8	94	5.2	73	5.0	51	10.1	311	5.6
Schools & Libraries	65	9.1	73	7.0	127	7.1	112	7.6	27	5.4	404	7.3
Other	54	7.6	81	7.7	178	9.9	139	9.5	51	10.1	503	9.1
Totals	712	100.0	1046	100.0	1792	100.0	1469	100.0	505	100.0	5524	100.0

Of the total number of relationships maintained by agency workers, 44.8 per cent are with direct-service social agencies, the children's, family, health, and recreation agencies, both private and public. Another 14.0 per cent of the relationships are with interagency organizations, including chests and councils. Workers in the larger cities report a larger percentage of relationships with interagency organizations than do staff people in the smaller cities—15.4 per cent in cities over 500,000; 15.8 per cent in cities of 250,000 to 500,000; and 11.4 in cities under 50,000. Workers in large cities also report proportionately more relationships than workers in smaller cities.

3. *With what kinds of organizations do lay leaders maintain relationships?*

Professional workers reported 356 relationships maintained by board members and other lay representatives. Of this total, 249 or 70 per cent of the relationships are carried by laymen of the agencies in the recreation and community center category; 18 per cent by laymen in the private children's, family, and health agencies; and 5 per cent in the public agencies. These persons maintain relationships in a variety of other organizations; many of them are on boards and committees of chests and councils. Some report these relationships as very important: "Relationships with Council of Social Agencies have been carried very efficiently by board and committee members." "Board members represent the agency in the Chest and Council committees . . . with proper selection this can be very valuable." "Our agency philosophy of the team idea means that laymen ought to help represent our movement—hence we ask for representation by them."

Some staff members have reservations about relationships maintained by the lay representatives: "A few board members are members of the Council of Social Agencies board or the Community Chest. I find it difficult for board members to serve two masters. This does not need to be a liability. . . ." "Our representatives to delegate body of chest and council grow discouraged."

Having board members and other lay workers carry relationships with other organizations may be one way of making board and committee memberships more vital.

Table 4 shows a fairly even percentage distribution of relationships maintained by staff members and board and committee members for the cities over 250,000. In cities from 100,000 to 250,000, and for those under 50,000, a larger percentage of total relationships is reported for board members than for staff members. In cities from 50,000 to 100,000, however, a larger percentage number of relationships is reported for staff members than for board members.

It seems evident that fewer board than staff members are carrying relationships. Only about 6 per cent of the total relationships reported by staff members are carried by board

TABLE 4

NUMBER OF RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED BY STAFF WORKERS AND LAY WORKERS IN VARIOUS-SIZE CITIES

	Number and Percentage of Relationships Maintained By			
	Staff Workers		Lay Workers	
City Size	No.	%	No.	%
Over 500,000	712	12.9	40	11.2
250,000–500,000	1046	18.9	68	19.1
100,000–250,000	1792	32.4	133	37.4
50,000–100,000	1469	26.6	69	19.4
Under 50,000	505	9.2	46	12.9
Totals	5524	100.0	356	100.0

members. The board members who do carry interagency relationships apparently carry as many relationships per person as do staff members.

These data raise some important questions. Are board members in most agencies actually carrying fewer of the interagency relationships than do staff members? More important, would board members not carry some relationships more effectively than staff members? If so, which relationships should be carried by board members? It seems likely, in a day when interagency relationships are of vital importance to the work of particular agencies and to the total community pattern of social welfare services that board members can well carry more of the interagency policy-making and interpretive relationships.

4. *Does the size of the city affect the number of relationships maintained by agency personnel?*

It is often assumed that the larger the city, the larger the number of potential relationships, and that staff persons maintain the larger number of relationships in such cities. Stating it in another way, one might expect staff persons in the larger cities of over 500,000 population to undertake a larger number of interagency relationships per staff member than would be true of workers in cities with populations under 50,000. The data (see Table 2) do show some difference between the largest and smallest cities. In the former, the average number of relationships for staff workers is 10.5 compared to 9.9 for the latter. Cities between 50,000 and 100,000, however, report the largest average numbers of relationships (12.7), and cities between 100,000 and 250,000, the next largest number (10.9).

TABLE 5

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED WITH SELECTED ORGANIZATIONS, BY CITY SIZE

City Size	Selected Organizations								Grand Total Number of Relationships with all types of agencies
	Civic Groups		Churches		Schools Libraries		Total		
	No. of Relationships	% of Grand Total	No. of Relationships	% of Grand Total	No. of Relationships	% of Grand Total	No. of Relationships	% of Grand Total	
Over 500,000	84	11.8	32	4.5	65	9.1	181	25.4	712
250,000–500,000	105	10.0	61	5.8	73	7.0	239	22.8	1046
100,000–250,000	179	10.0	94	5.2	127	7.1	400	22.3	1792
50,000–100,000	169	11.5	73	5.0	112	7.6	354	24.1	1469
Under 50,000	89	17.6	51	10.1	27	5.4	167	33.1	505
Totals	626	11.3	311	5.6	404	7.3	1341	24.2	5524

What is the explanation for agency persons in these medium-size cities carrying more relationships than the personnel in the larger cities? It might be assumed that agency people in the medium-size cities relate themselves to a larger number of organizations not formally identified with the social welfare field—civic groups, churches, schools, and libraries. According to the information provided by the study, however, this is not the case. Table 5 reveals that workers in cities between 50,000 and 250,000 report 23.1 per cent of their relationships with civic groups, churches, schools, and similar groups. This is about the same as the proportion reported by staff persons in cities of 250,000 to 500,000, (22.8) and less than the 25.4 per cent reported for cities of over 500,000 and than the 33.1 per cent for cities under 50,000. The answer is not clear; it does seem that relationships in the medium-size cities make a greater demand on workers than in the larger or the smaller cities.

5. *Do workers in various staff positions tend to differ in the number of relationships maintained?*

Persons at the top administrative level are, on the average, involved in a greater number of relationships than staff members in the supervisory and nonsupervisory positions. The average number of relationships maintained respectively are 12.9, 9.8, and 10.0. Table 2 also shows this to be the case in each category of city size.

The question might well be asked: are executives carrying too large a proportion of the agency's relationships? Certain relationships must be carried by the executive; certain others, relating to joint services, might be carried more effectively by staff workers closely related to the direct services. These data suggest the importance of careful review of relationship assignments and the importance of division of labor, within a staff, in relation to them.

Types and Effectiveness of Interagency Relationships

6. *What types of relationships are maintained by the various staff levels, i.e., executive, other supervisory, and nonsupervisory positions?*

The material in Chapter XII gave evidence that the largest proportion of relationships were reported in the categories involving definite planning, or joint operating responsibilities with other organizations. This analysis did not attempt to ascertain whether differences with regard to types of relationships existed on the basis of staff positions. The distribution of types of relationships by staff levels is given in Table 6.

Relationships resulting in the exchange of information and

TABLE 6

CLASSIFICATION OF RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED BY THE THREE STAFF LEVELS

Classification of Relationships	Executives		Other Supervisory Staff		Non-supervisory Staff		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Acquaintance Relationships which have primarily been limited to furthering acquaintance with other agency leaders	250	10.8	199	11.9	231	15.0	680	12.3
Information Relationships which have resulted in considerable exchange of information	450	19.4	340	20.5	310	20.1	1100	19.9
Consultation Relationships which, in addition to furthering acquaintance and exchanging information, have resulted in specific consultation with representatives of other agencies	363	15.7	234	14.1	241	15.6	838	15.2
Planning Relationships which, in addition to those above, have resulted in definite planning with representatives of other agencies	603	26.0	379	22.8	407	26.3	1389	25.1
Operating Responsibility Relationships which have also resulted in definite operating responsibilities with representatives of other agencies	651	28.1	510	30.7	356	23.0	1517	27.5
Totals	2317	100.0	1662	100.0	1545	100.0	5524	100.0

in planning are quite evenly distributed among the three classes of staff positions.

It might be assumed that where the responsibility for maintaining relationships with other organizations is distributed among the three levels of staff positions, those relationships classified as "operating responsibility" would fall to the top administrator and those in the "acquaintance" category to the nonsupervisory staff. The data tend to support this assumption. Of the total number of relationships borne by executives, 28.1 per cent result in definite operating responsibilities, whereas 23.0 per cent of the relationships of the nonsupervisory personnel are in this category. Conversely, only 10.8 per cent of the relationships maintained by executives are for the purpose of acquaintance as against 15.0 per cent for the nonsupervisory staff persons. Workers classified as supervisory personnel tend to carry a slightly higher proportion of relationships resulting in both acquaintance and operating responsibilities than do the executives. These data suggest the possibility of more deliberate selection of relationships, based on clearly defined criteria.

7. *What is the relative effectiveness of the relationships maintained?*

Some of the relationships must prove more worth while than others. Some probably, and perhaps inevitably, represent a loss of time and energy in the eyes of the workers. In order to obtain a picture of the general value of the many relationships maintained, staff members of agencies participating in the study were asked to rate the effectiveness of the relationships reported by them. Table 7 summarizes these ratings by staff members in various types of agencies.

It is apparent from these data that a large proportion of the relationships are considered effective. Forty-two and four-tenths per cent of the relationships were reported as very effective, and 39.5 per cent, as fairly effective—a total of 81.9 per cent. It is also apparent, however, that some relationships are considered a waste of time. If those rated "neither effective nor ineffective" and those rated "fairly ineffective" and "very ineffective" were combined, the resulting figures would total 988, which equals 18.1 per cent of all the relationships re-

TABLE 7

RATING OF EFFECTIVENESS OF RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED BY STAFF MEMBERS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF AGENCIES

Type of Agency	Ratings										Totals	
	Very Effective		Fairly Effective		Neither Effective Nor Ineffective		Fairly Ineffective		Very Ineffective			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Children's Agencies	101	46.1	73	33.4	32	14.6	7	3.2	6	2.7	219	100.0
Family Agencies	487	42.4	476	41.4	131	11.4	37	3.2	18	1.6	1149	100.0
Health Agencies	202	56.0	116	32.1	40	11.1	3	.8	—	—	361	100.0
Recreation—Informal Education Agencies	1130	38.6	1199	40.9	440	15.0	118	4.0	45	1.5	2932	100.0
Others	389	49.4	287	36.5	91	11.6	19	2.4	1	.1	787	100.0
Totals	2309	42.4	2151	39.5	734	13.4	184	3.4	70	1.3	5448*	100.0

* Some workers did not report on effectiveness.

ported. From the offhand remarks one hears about the efficiency of many relationships, this percentage is not so great as one would expect. Nevertheless, it represents nearly one-fifth of all the relationships maintained, and in terms of nonproductive man hours it represents a considerable expenditure of professional talent.

8. *Do differences in ratings of effectiveness by staff members exist by size of city?*

Some differences do exist. As cities increase in size the percentage of ineffective relationships apparently increases. Agency workers in cities of over 500,000 rated 6.5 per cent of their relationships as fairly or very ineffective. Staff members in cities of 50,000 to 100,000 rated 3.3 per cent of their relationships as fairly ineffective or very ineffective. Similarly, workers in cities under 50,000, rated 3.4 per cent of their relationships as ineffective. Does this mean that in the larger and more complex communities professional workers are more apt to establish relationships which prove unsatisfactory? Are large cities, with their complexity, more difficult places to maintain effective relationships? This seems to be the situation.

Workers in the smaller cities, as Table 8 reveals, rate a higher percentage of their relationships as very effective than do the workers in the cities of over 250,000.

TABLE 8

RATINGS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF RELATIONSHIPS MAINTAINED BY STAFF MEMBERS BY SIZE OF CITY

City Size	Ratings										Totals	
	Very Effective		Fairly Effective		Neither Effective Nor Ineffective		Fairly Ineffective		Very Ineffective			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Over 500,000	290	42.1	279	40.6	74	10.8	36	5.2	9	1.3	688	100.0
250,000–500,000	331	32.2	450	43.7	184	17.9	47	4.6	16	1.6	1028	100.0
100,000–250,000	801	45.5	661	37.6	218	12.4	55	3.1	24	1.4	1759	100.0
50,000–100,000	659	44.9	562	38.3	198	13.5	36	2.4	14	.9	1469	100.0
Under 50,000	228	45.2	199	39.5	60	11.9	10	2.0	7	1.4	504	100.0
Totals	2309	42.4	2151	39.5	734	13.4	184	3.4	70	1.3	5448*	100.0

* Some workers did not report on effectiveness.

9. *How do the ratings of effectiveness assigned to relationships maintained by board and other lay leadership compare with the ratings of the relationships maintained by staff members?*

Of a total of 356 relationships maintained by board members and lay representatives of organizations 37.1 per cent were rated as very effective. This is compared to 42.4 per cent of the relationships maintained by staff members. It must be remembered that these ratings were made by the staff members and not by the lay leaders themselves. A larger percentage of the relationships carried by laymen are rated ineffective than are those borne by the staff. For the former group 7.9 per cent of the relationships are ineffective as against 4.7 per cent for the latter group.

With the exception of the cities of 250,000 to 500,000, there is a progressively increasing effectiveness of the relationships maintained by board and other lay members. The data in Table 9 show that for the cities over 500,000, 45.0 per cent of the relationships are rated as very effective and none is rated as ineffective. In cities under 50,000 only 32.6 per cent of such relationships are rated as very effective and 6.5 are rated as ineffective.

TABLE 9

RATINGS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF RELATIONSHIPS
MAINTAINED BY BOARD MEMBERS AND OTHER LAY REPRESENTATIVES
BY CITY SIZE

City Size	Ratings										Totals	
	Very Effective		Fairly Effective		Neither Effective Nor Ineffective		Fairly Ineffective		Very Ineffective			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Over 500,000	18	45.0	16	40.0	6	15.0	—	—	—	—	40	100.0
250,000–500,000	17	25.0	31	45.6	7	10.3	11	16.2	2	2.9	68	100.0
100,000–250,000	55	41.4	50	37.6	18	13.5	9	6.8	1	.7	133	100.0
50,000–100,000	27	39.1	37	53.6	3	4.4	2	2.9	—	—	69	100.0
Under 50,000	15	32.6	27	58.7	1	2.2	2	4.3	1	2.2	46	100.0
Totals	132	37.1	161	45.2	35	9.8	24	6.8	4	1.1	356	100.0

* * *

In summary: Agency staff members maintain extensive interagency relationships. Relationships are numerous and of great variety. Some variations, by staff position and by size of city, are obvious. A large proportion of the relationships are considered effective, but a considerable number are not considered very productive. Board members and other lay representatives maintain far fewer relationships, but many of them are considered important and effective.

The basis for and methods used to select relationships and the importance of policies regarding relationships must next be considered. The next chapter will explore such further questions about the ways in which interagency relationships can be effectively managed.

15

Criteria and Policies for Interagency Relationships

THIS CHAPTER will deal with the problem of managing interagency relationships; with the matter of how and why they are accepted, declined, or discontinued; with the establishment of criteria and policies.

Again, as in the previous chapter, the questionnaire study data will be explored for answers to a set of specific questions.

Most Important Relationships

1. Which relationships are deemed most important by agency staff?
2. What are the reasons given for selecting certain relationships as more important than others? Do the stated reasons appear to differ with size of city?

Selecting, Declining, and Discontinuing Relationships

3. On what basis are new relationships established?
4. Who decides which relationships to establish? How are they allocated among staff members?
5. On what basis do staff members decline interagency relationships?
6. Why are some relationships discontinued?

Policy and Practice

7. What are the attitudes of staff members toward interagency relationships?
8. Do agencies generally have a definite policy regarding interagency relationships?

Most Important Relationships

1. Which relationships are deemed most important by agency staff?

For the purpose of this analysis, the agencies which replied to the questionnaire were classified under the following headings: voluntary children's agencies, family agencies, health agencies, recreation and neighborhood center agencies, the public agencies, and "others." This last category included such agencies as legal aid, Urban League, Red Cross, housing councils, and the Salvation Army.

The organizations with which relationships were maintained were classified as voluntary children's agencies, family agencies, health agencies, recreation and neighborhood center agencies, the public agencies, and interagency organizations such as chests and councils. In this classification there also is a category identified as "others." In this category are the churches, civic groups, schools and libraries, and professional organizations, as well as some organizations which did not lend themselves to classification in the major categories.

Though the classification was made arbitrarily and may be open to question it was so devised to permit the analysis appearing in Table 10. The data appearing in this table reveal that of the 1515 relationships selected as most important, 26.0 per cent are with interagency organizations. The percentage of such relationships is higher for the family agencies and for the recreation and neighborhood center group. They are 34.0 per cent and 30.0 per cent respectively.

The category containing the largest proportion (37.0%) of relationships considered as most important is the one identified as "other." In this category over 30.0 per cent of the relationships reported were with civic groups, schools, professional organizations, and churches, in the order of frequency.[1]

Relationships with the recreation agencies and neighborhood centers were the third most important in terms of percentage. Two hundred, or 13.2 per cent of the total 1,515 relationships, were in this group. In addition to the recreation and neighborhood center agencies which establish relation-

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[1] See Table B in Appendix for a detailed breakdown.

TABLE 10

RELATIONSHIPS SELECTED AS MOST IMPORTANT

Agencies Maintaining Relationships	Relationships Maintained With														Totals	
	Voluntary Agencies															
	Children's		Family		Health		Recreation & Neigh. Centers		Other		Public Agencies		Inter-Agency Organizations			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Voluntary Agencies																
Children's	6	15.0	7	17.5	1	2.5	4	10.0	3	7.5	9	22.5	10	25.0	40	100.0
Family	7	4.7	5	3.3	12	8.0	9	6.0	45	30.0	21	14.0	51	34.0	150	100.0
Health	2	2.2	7	7.7	24	26.4	2	2.2	20	21.9	18	19.8	18	19.8	91	100.0
Recr. & Neigh. Centers	6	.7	17	2.1	12	1.5	135	16.4	368	44.7	38	4.6	247	30.0	823	100.0
Other	5	3.2	3	1.9	20	12.7	17	10.8	57	36.3	23	14.7	32	20.4	157	100.0
Public Agencies	11	4.3	16	6.3	30	11.8	33	13.0	68	26.8	60	23.6	36	14.2	254	100.0
Totals	37	2.5	55	3.6	99	6.5	200	13.2	561	37.0	169	11.2	394	26.0	1515	100.0

ships with each other, the public agencies and the children's agencies maintain a fair proportion of their most important relationships with the recreation agencies and neighborhood centers.

The data show that relationships with the public agencies are deemed important. The surprising fact is that the recreation and neighborhood center agencies report only 4.6 per cent of their most important relationships with public agencies. This can be explained in part by recognizing that the schools are not included under public agencies in this classification. The leisure-time agencies report nearly twice as many relationships with schools as they do with the public agency group.[2]

2. *What are the reasons given for selecting certain relationships as more important than others? Do the stated reasons appear to differ with the size of city?*

A reason was given for each of the 1,515 relationships rated as most important. These reasons were arranged in eleven classes. Table 11 lists the reasons and the percentage of replies under each by size of city. The percentages are ranked for ready comparison.[3]

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[2] *Loc. cit.*

TABLE 11

REASONS FOR IMPORTANCE OF SELECTED RELATIONSHIPS

Reasons Given	City Size											
	Over 500,000		250,000–500,000		100,000–250,000		50,000–100,000		Under 50,000		Totals	
	% of Replies	Rank	% of Replies	Rank	% of Replies	Rank	% of Replies	Rank	% of Replies	Rank	% of Replies	Rank
Co-ordination provided	22.8	1.5	21.9	2	22.5	2	15.2	3	19.6	2	20.3	2
Source of income	.6	10.5	4.8	7	4.2	8	3.9	9	6.1	7	4.1	8.5
Use of facilities	1.2	9	4.5	8	5.2	6	5.3	7.5	3.1	9	4.4	7
Program promotion or interpretation	22.8	1.5	14.8	3	10.4	4	19.4	2	16.0	3	15.5	3
Volunteers trained	2.5	8	0.0	10.5	1.6	10	.5	11	1.2	10	1.1	10
Source of information	8.7	5	9.0	4	10.8	3	5.5	5.5	8.0	5	8.6	4
Valuable comm. service	5.6	7	6.5	5	4.8	7	7.1	4	8.6	4	6.2	6
Similar field of service	17.9	3	29.4	1	30.9	1	30.2	1	27.0	1	28.6	1
Same geographical area served	.6	10.5	0.0	10.5	.4	11	2.1	10	0.0	11	.7	11
Joint program operated	10.5	4	5.2	6	6.4	5	5.5	5.5	6.7	6	6.4	5
Other	6.8	6	3.9	9	2.8	9	5.3	7.5	3.7	8	4.1	8.5
Totals	100		100		100		100		100		100	

On the basis of totals for all cities, operation in similar fields of service was the reason given most frequently in the tabulation. It ranked first with all cities except those over 500,000. Relationships providing co-ordination of services also were listed frequently. About one-fifth of all relationships were in this category, which ranked second.

[3] See Table C in Appendix for number of replies in each category.

There is an unusually high degree of agreement among the various-size cities on the ranking of the eleven classes of reasons. In no case does the ranking differ by more than the three-and-a-half steps in the "source of income" category.

The concern for community welfare has been expressed constantly in this book. Perhaps these data which summarize the reasons for selecting certain interagency relationships as most important may reveal the degree of community-mindedness of agency personnel.

On the assumption that certain of the reasons given for selecting the most important relationships mirror the interest of agency personnel in the community rather than the agencies per se, the following reasons are classed as "community centered": provides co-ordination, renders valuable community service, is in a similar field of service, serves same geographical area, and operates joint program. The combined percentages of these five categories equal 62.2 per cent. Admittedly this is a rough index, but an encouraging one for persons interested in co-ordination and community organization.

This positive attitude toward co-ordination is stated clearly by one agency executive who reasons that the relationship with the council of social agencies is important because the council "can be the co-ordinating force for all health and welfare and group work agencies and can provide the channel for planning for the total welfare of the community."

Selecting, Declining, and Discontinuing Relationships

3. *On what bases are new relationships established?*

Respondents in the study reported taking on 327 new relationships within a two-year period. Of this total, 94 or 28.7 per cent, were selected on the basis that the new relationship permitted staff members to participate in or render service to a new and needed organization. Another 73, or 22.3%, of new relationships, were accepted in order to take an active hand in the planning and improvement of the services of worth-while existing organizations. From this it is apparent that community-mindedness and a desire to help motivated 51.0 per cent of the new relationships. This percentage is but a rough index of community interest but it does tend to substantiate the assumption made in Question 2 above.

The remaining 49.0 per cent of the reasons given may be classified as agency centered. They include source of income, interpretation of agency, source of information, useful contacts, use of physical facilities, source of volunteers. A few replies reveal the use of pressure to join.

Though the number of cases may be statistically insignificant, yet the fairly well-balanced division between "community-centered" and "agency-centered" reasons for establishing new relationships is of itself important. If the interest in the agency does not too far outweigh concern for the community, the prospects for community organization are favorable.

This is not to say that agency self-interest is not important. An agency must establish a certain proportion of relationships which will directly benefit the agency. The agency must be strong, must have status in the community if it is to make its contribution to the community organization process. This attitude is clearly illustrated by the following statement in the reason for establishing relationship with the community chest: "To protect the autonomy and identity of the individual agency as well as to promote the plan of federated financing."

The balance between community interest and agency interest reflected in the total figures is also apparent when taken by size of city. The following table shows the percentages by city size.

TABLE 12

PERCENTAGE OF RELATIONSHIPS SELECTED ON BASIS BY SIZE OF CITY COMMUNITY INTEREST AND AGENCY INTEREST

Size of City	Community Interest	Agency Interest
Over 500,000	39.2	60.8
250,000–500,000	60.6	39.4
100,000–250,000	51.5	48.5
50,000–100,000	53.1	46.9
Under 50,000	41.6	58.4
All Cities	51.0	49.0

It is of interest to note that the smallest percentage of community-centered relationships appears in the largest cities and in the smallest cities. Does this imply that co-ordination and co-operation for the welfare of the community are more difficult in cities over 500,000 due to the large number of direct service agencies and organizations? Is the picture too fragmented? On the other hand, what explains this smaller percentage in the cities under 50,000? Is it because adequate machinery for community planning and co-ordination is not available? These questions, though not answered by the data, are worthy of consideration.

4. *Who decides which relationships to establish? How are they allocated among staff members?*

Answers to these questions should reveal to some extent whether relationships are entered into purposively or opportunistically and whether the decisions are group matters or solely up to the individual.

A total of 1,131 replies were received on this question of selection. Table 13 shows the distribution of these replies by city size and by method of selection of new relationships.

TABLE 13

MEANS OF SELECTION OF NEW RELATIONSHIPS BY CITY SIZE

City Size	Left to Individuals		Decided in Staff		Assigned by Executive		Consultation		Assigned or Elected by Board		Consultation with Board		Other		Totals
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Over 500,000	41	23.6	36	20.7	43	24.7	23	13.2	12	6.9	10	5.7	9	5.2	174
250,000–500,000	60	26.3	41	18.0	68	29.8	22	9.7	20	8.8	6	2.6	11	4.8	228
100,000–250,000	101	27.3	77	20.8	76	20.6	49	13.3	32	8.6	19	5.1	16	4.3	370
50,000–100,000	67	26.8	53	21.2	54	21.6	39	15.6	15	6.0	7	2.8	15	6.0	250
Under 50,000	31	28.4	15	13.8	21	19.3	18	16.5	14	12.8	5	4.6	5	4.6	109
Totals	300	26.5	222	19.6	262	23.1	151	13.4	93	8.2	47	4.2	56	4.9	1131

The data reveal that more than one-quarter of the selections of new relationships are made independently by the individual worker. Approximately another quarter of the relationships carried by staff persons are assigned to them by the executive. Thus one half, 49.6 per cent to be exact, of the new relationships were determined by individuals. This relative proportion is true not only for the totals, but also for the various-size cities.

With the exception of the replies under the classification "Other," the remainder of the selections are the result of a group process. Thus, 45.4 per cent of the total replies indicate that the selection of new relationships was decided upon in staff or cabinet sessions (19.6 per cent), agreed upon in consultation with boards and committees (13.4 per cent), assigned or elected by boards or committees (8.2 per cent), or agreed upon in consultation with board or committee officers (4.2 per cent). Replies classified under item "Other" include such statements as: responsibility delegated by Community Council, person is elected—agency has no choice, requested to serve by other agency, contacts due to type of work assigned, workers assigned on district basis.

New relationships, it appears, are selected about equally by individual workers and by the group process. Presumably some discussion of the value of a contemplated relationship takes place in the group process, and the relationship is selected on the basis of some explicit or implicit criteria. Can the same be said for selections made by individual workers? Are all of these relationships entered into purposively?

5. *On what basis do staff members decline interagency relationships?*

On the basis of the small number (53) replying to the question attempting to elicit the reasons for declining invitations to establish new relationships, it might be assumed either that few invitations are received or that few are turned down. On the basis of the number of relationships maintained by most of the persons who participated in the study, the latter is more likely to be true. If this assumption is correct, then even the limited number of reasons for declining invitations may be significant.

Lack of time is the overwhelming reason advanced. Of the total of fifty-three replies, thirty-six, or 67.9 per cent, give "time" as the reason for declining. The balance of the replies give evidence that the invitations were refused for apparently sound reasons by the respondents. Invitations were declined because of poor leadership within the inviting organization, because the relationship would bring possible unfavorable reflection on one's agency, because of disagreement with the policy of the inviting organization, because agency represented duplication of effort, and because of lack of interest in the activities of the organization.

Whether or not the reasons given are valid is beside the point. The important fact is that invitations to establish new relationships were declined and some criterion was used in making the decision.

6. *Why are some relationships discontinued?*

On the basis of the analysis in the preceding question, the answer would seem obvious—because certain relationships are not productive. In order to answer this question more precisely, the reasons for discontinuing relationships received from seventy-seven staff members were carefully studied and categories developed. The largest percentage (37.6) of replies gave lack of time as the reason. This may be the superficial reason but behind it possibly lies the fact that the relationship was ineffective. When priorities are established or selections are made in relationships it is likely that the least satisfying are the ones dropped.

"Responsibility transferred to another" was the reason given by 14.3 per cent of those who discontinued a relationship. There is no way of knowing whether the relationship was severed reluctantly or gladly. Did the transfer provide an easy way out of an unsatisfying relationship?

Three categories reveal more definitive reasons: poor leadership, lack of purpose, usefulness outgrown. The responses under these three headings accounted for 29.9 per cent of the total replies.

A general category included 18.2 per cent of the replies. The reasons given included the following: organization disbanded, too expensive, racial stereotypes promoted, no basis for cooperation, difficulties in public-private relationships, of secondary importance, rest needed.

The important question arising out of this analysis of reasons for discontinuing relationships and out of the knowledge that a significant percentage of relationships are not rated as effective is whether organizations and their professional staffs are consciously and intelligently selecting, declining, or discontinuing relationships on the basis of a definite policy grounded on well-thought-out criteria, or whether these choices are made opportunistically and haphazardly.

Policy and Practice

7. *What are the attitudes of staff members toward interagency relationships?*

Attitudes are determinants of action. Persons act toward stimuli in the environment on the basis of their attitudes toward those stimuli. Whether or not agency workers participate in co-operative relationships the quality of such relationships will depend in a large measure on the way they feel about them.

The analysis of the responses of 503 agency workers on their attitudes toward the value of co-operative relationship reveals that 66.8 per cent of all workers express a positive belief in the value of interagency relationships; an additional 9.7 per

TABLE 14

ATTITUDES OF WORKERS TOWARD INTERAGENCY RELATIONSHIPS

Size of City	Attitudes									
	Positive Belief in Co-operative Relationships		Participate but Have Little Conviction of Their Value		Definitely Negative Attitude—Do Not Believe in Interagency Relationships		Attitude Not Indicated		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Over 500,000	44	64.7	8	11.8	—	0.0	16	23.5	68	100.0
250,000–500,000	54	56.3	10	10.4	2	2.1	30	31.2	96	100.0
100,000–250,000	119	73.0	11	6.8	2	1.2	31	19.0	163	100.0
50,000–100,000	83	66.4	16	12.8	—	0.0	26	20.8	125	100.0
Under 50,000	36	70.6	4	7.8	3	5.9	8	15.7	51	100.0
Totals	336	66.8	49	9.7	7	1.4	111	22.1	503	100.0

cent participate in such relationships but have little conviction regarding their value; 1.4 per cent report a definitely negative attitude and do not believe that such relationships have any value; and 22.1 per cent give no indication of their attitude.

From this analysis it would appear that one out of eight workers who did indicate their attitudes toward interagency relationships, merely went through the motions of maintaining such relationships. What contributions do such persons make to the co-operative process? The data would tend to confirm the statement made by a prominent community chest and council executive that there are three types of agencies in the community social welfare picture: (1) *co-operators*—those which participate fully and earnestly in the community organization process; (2) *pretenders*—those agencies which participate because of public pressure or because it is the politic thing to do, and (3) *isolationists*—those which are definitely negative and pursue their own agency interests to the exclusion of all else.

8. *Do agencies generally have a definite policy regarding interagency relationship?*

Only 12.5 per cent of the 503 workers replied that their organizations had written policies governing interagency relationships. Over half of the respondents (54.3%), however, indicated the existence of an unwritten policy favoring interagency relationships.

Even a casual perusal of the figures in Table 15 reveals that written policies are found most frequently in the larger cities: 250,000 to 500,000 and over 500,000. This formalization of policy is undoubtedly more necessary in these cities with their multiplicity of organizations and services. Where definite policies regarding interagency relationships exist in the smaller cities these policies tend to be informal and unwritten. Apparently the pressure for specific policies is not so great as in the more complex communities.

It is quite apparent that too little systematic thinking has been done about the entire matter of interagency relationships. There is some evidence of implicit criteria and policies, but little evidence of formalized statements of policy or listings of criteria used by agencies in the process of selecting, declining, discontinuing, or continuing interagency relationships. Nor do

TABLE 15

POLICY RELATING TO INTERAGENCY RELATIONSHIPS

Size of City	Policy									
	Definitely Stated Written Policy		Understood, Unwritten Policy Favoring Interagency Relationship		No Stated Policy		Not Indicated		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Over 500,000	29	42.6	18	26.5	7	10.3	14	20.6	68	100.0
250,000–500,000	18	18.7	40	41.7	9	9.4	29	30.2	96	100.0
100,000–250,000	8	4.9	107	65.6	21	12.9	27	16.6	163	100.0
50,000–100,000	4	3.2	78	62.4	17	13.6	26	20.8	125	100.0
Under 50,000	4	7.8	30	58.8	9	17.7	8	15.7	51	100.0
Totals	63	12.5	273	54.3	63	12.5	104	20.7	503	100.0

such criteria and policies exist with reference to how responsibility for maintaining relationships is allocated among staff members and among board and committee members.

Because of the definite need for each agency to establish criteria and develop a policy on interagency relationships, the following suggestions are presented.

Criteria for Selection of Interagency Relationships [4]

1. The relationship should help to provide the agency and its leaders with useful information about the community, its people, its problems, its services.
2. The relationship should stimulate the growth and development of staff members and lay representatives, in terms of the agency's objectives and work.
3. It should help to strengthen and extend the work of the agency, by interpreting its purposes, problems, and programs in community circles.

[4] Adapted from Ray Johns's chapter, "Sharing in Co-operative Community Relationships," in *The Executive Role in Y.M.C.A. Administration,* Gren O. Pierrel, Editor (New York: Association Press, 1951).

4. The relationship should demonstrate the interest of the agency in broad and basic community problems, beyond the range of its own program; it should relate agency leadership helpfully to such community enterprises.
5. It should further effective working relationships and co-operative work among various types of community service organizations: social welfare agencies, churches, schools, and other organizations.
6. The relationship should help to strengthen the work of the interagency organizations such as community chest and council.
7. It should strengthen the total services of the community.

Each relationship cannot expect to meet all criteria, but each relationship should be selected on the basis of one or more of these or similar criteria. Furthermore, the criteria should be applied before the selection is made. Selecting community relationships is not like falling in love where the justification is made after the *fait accompli.* The set of relationships maintained in any agency should probably meet all of the criteria stated, with different emphases in different situations.

General Principles with Reference to Interagency Relationships[5]

1. The agency should establish co-operative harmonious relationships with other selected community organizations, based on the criteria suggested above.
2. Relationships should be carefully selected in terms of their appropriateness, and in terms of staff and board members' other responsibilities.
3. Relationships should be distributed appropriately among various boards and staff members, in terms of the agency responsibilities and their own interests and skills.
4. Relationships should be kept flexible; they should be evaluated and revised periodically, in terms of their demonstrated value and effectiveness.

* * *

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[5] *Ibid.*

On the basis of the criteria and principles above it should be feasible for an agency to develop a policy on community relationships which would give meaning and value to interagency relationships.[6] It should also result in a more economical and productive use of staff energy and time.

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[6] See the Appendix for an illustration of a statement of agency policy on interagency relationships.

16

Barriers to Effective Co-operative Relationships

THE DESIRABILITY of well-selected, effective interagency relationships among social welfare agencies is now quite generally accepted. No agency can "live to itself alone" in any community today. Most social agencies, the authors' recent study reveals, maintain a large number of interagency relationships. Many of these relationships, however, were rated as "fairly ineffective" or "very ineffective." The inquiry to chest and council executives revealed considerable restlessness among agency personnel about their interagency relationships.

Questions were included in the two inquiries about the problems and barriers encountered in interagency relationships. The reactions of 503 workers in direct-service agencies in forty-seven different communities and staff workers in chests and councils in fifty different communities, trying to generalize about their interagency experiences of the previous two years, can furnish many potentially useful clues about the factors which have been limiting the effectiveness of relationships. An over-all summary of barriers and "blocks," with a comparison of those considered important by direct-service agency workers and by chest-council workers, may be seen in Table 16 which follows on page 214.

As Workers See the Barriers and Blocks

The question asked of both the direct-service agency workers and the chest and council executives was an "open-end" question; no possible replies were suggested; no list to check was provided. Closely related barriers or blocks, though stated in different words, were combined into one item. The similarities in the two lists and, even more, their differences, are significant. Workers in both groups were critical of the direct-service agen-

TABLE 16

BARRIERS AND "BLOCKS" TO CO-OPERATION REPORTED BY WORKERS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF AGENCIES

Barriers and "Blocks"	Barriers Reported by Chest and Council Workers*		Barriers Reported by Agency Workers†	
	No.	%	No.	%
Lack of knowledge of purpose, function, and work of other agency	9	7.6	92	14.5
Lack of clear definition of agency function	3	2.5		
Basic differences in prof'l philosophy	2	1.7		
Lack of common professional standards			50	7.9
Lack of professional training	10	8.5		
Too few trained staff members	3	2.5	36	5.7
Lack of time—too many meetings	2	1.7	109	17.2
National agencies fostering "vertical" channels—"theism"	6	5.1		
Inflexibility of agencies—ingrown boards and staff	6	5.1		
Unwillingness to put community interests ahead of "vested" agency interests	11	9.3	58	9.2
Agency-mindedness—isolationism	16	13.6		
Lack of interest			24	3.8
Inexperience in joint planning	5	4.3		
Lack of co-operation among agencies—competition	12	10.2	23	3.6
Lack of community co-ordination			62	9.8
Inadequate chest and council leadership	3	2.5	57	9.0
Oversensitivity of public agencies and those that raise funds independently to council suggestions	4	3.4		
Lack of funds—unrest over inadequate funds	6	5.1	34	5.4
Dissatisfaction with restrictive chest policies regarding agency fund raising	1	.8		
Personality conflicts—professional jealousies	10	8.5	24	3.8
Defensiveness by some agencies—over-protectiveness	7	5.9		
Feelings of discomfort—inadequacy of untrained workers in relationships	2	1.7		
Other "blocks"			64	10.1
Totals	118	100.0	633	100.0

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* "Blocks" reported by chest and council workers in 50 cities.

† "Blocks" reported by 503 agency workers in 47 cities.

cies. The chest-council workers were especially critical. Both were also somewhat critical of the chest-council leadership. Some degree of self-criticism was evident in the replies of both groups.

The blocks and barriers reported fall into rather natural categories by which they can be readily compared.

Lack of understanding: Lack of knowledge of the purposes, functions, and work of the other agencies was noted by 14.5 per cent of the agency workers and 7.6 per cent of the chest-council personnel. The same kinds of barriers, such as lack of clear definition of agency functions, and basic differences in professional philosophy, were also listed by 4.2 per cent of the chest-council workers.

Lack of understanding and misconceptions of nurses and case workers were commented on in a recent study of such relationships in the following terms:

> . . . The nurse feels that in the eyes of the case worker she is limited to bedside care and does not relate to the total family situation in which she might be of assistance. Therefore, when the social case worker refers families to the nurse, she provides little information about family activity and plans. . . . On the other hand, the nurse becomes impatient if her referral does not receive prompt attention . . . and she feels that the family solves the problem for better or worse before the case worker takes action. She sees opportunities for preventive case work but she cannot always interpret social service—especially if the family does not recognize the need. . . .
>
> Different practices in the areas of overlapping interests of the two groups, such as hygiene, medical care, diet, housing, or budgeting, may cause conflict. . . . It may be difficult for a case worker to understand why health supervision for one group of infants and school children is assumed by different nurses. It may be equally difficult for a nurse to understand the division of responsibility between private and public agencies.[1]

The author of the study quoted above suggests that the "first step toward mutual understanding is information about each other during the period of professional training. . . . The second step . . . is staff education inside an agency. . . . The third . . . is . . . interagency activity."[2]

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[1] A. M. M. Ahla, *Referred by Visiting Nurse* (Cleveland: The Press of Western Reserve University, 1950), pp. 5-6.

Professional standards and training: Workers in direct-service agencies and chest and council executives rated lack of professional training and lack of common professional standards as major blocks to interagency relationships. One council executive stated the problem effectively:

> I believe that lack of professional training, particularly among public agencies, presents the most serious block to interagency relationships. Not only are public agency people many times poorly qualified, but there is room for improvement in private case work agencies and in group work as well. I think that particularly in the group work field, much more training is needed than is usually recognized by those agencies.

The professional training which is needed is not only in the field of service of each particular agency. Workers in all agencies need, as most schools of social work require, at least one introductory course in community organization, where it is interpreted as a pervasive process in social work, and where workers can acquire a "community-wide point of view," and an understanding of community organization problems and methods of dealing with them.

Too little time—too many meetings: Lack of time and too many meetings were listed as serious blocks more times than any other (17.2 per cent) by agency workers. This factor did not seem nearly so important to chest and council executives. "Too few trained staff members" noted by both agency and chest-council workers, undoubtedly contributed to the time problem. From the number of relationships listed by the 503 agency workers, 5,524, a great deal of agency time is undoubtedly invested in interagency meetings and conferences. Impatience with the number of meetings and the amount of time required is probably related to the feeling of definite accomplishment or lack of accomplishment. It might also well suggest that relationships should be selected with increasing care, based on clearly established criteria for undertaking new relationships or maintaining existing ones. It can also suggest the importance of periodic appraisal and revision of relationships with other agencies.

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[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

National-local blocks: Chest and council executives who replied to the inquiry reported "vertical" channels—from national agency to its local affiliate—as an important block to local interagency relationships. This "agency theism," as one council executive called it, sometimes complicates local efforts to achieve balance in services, especially when a strong promotional emphasis emanates from the national agency headquarters, and the progress of local units is measured primarily in terms of numerical growth.

Agency inflexibility—"vested" interests—isolationism: A series of items relating to rigid institutionalism were reported, more by chest and council executives, but a number of items by direct-service agency workers. Over one-fourth of the blocks (28.0 per cent) reported by chest and council personnel were of this type. They constituted 9.2 per cent of the blocks reported by agency workers. "Inflexibility of agencies—ingrown boards and staffs—unwillingness to put community interests ahead of 'vested' agency interests—agency-mindedness, isolationism" were terms used by chest and council personnel and agency workers alike to indicate their concern about over-rigidity. The terms probably also indicated a sense of frustration.

Two things can be said about tendencies toward rigid institutionalism: (1) All social organizations tend to become less flexible as they achieve strength. All social agencies, including chests and councils, are subject to this influence. Social institutions can achieve strength and yet remain reasonably flexible, if their leadership keeps pliant, resilient, and responsive to changing needs. (2) What seems to be "agency-mindedness" —absorption in narrow agency interests—may in some cases be a reaction against one of the fundamental problems of chest-council-agency or agency-agency relationships: the problem of how much independence must be surrendered. Or it may be a difference in judgment about whether some of the pressures exerted by the planning bodies are really in the interests of the community and its people. Community organization workers and direct-service agency workers need to understand the nature of social institutions.

Joint planning blocks: Lack of co-operation was noted as a serious block by both chest-council and agency workers. Inexperience in joint planning represented 4.6 per cent of the blocks reported by the chest-council executives. Agency workers listed "lack of community co-ordination—especially through the community council" as constituting 9.8 per cent of all the blocks they reported, and "inadequate chest and council leadership" as 9.0 per cent of the blocks. Evidently both chest-council and agency staff members regard professional limitations in the other group as among the most serious blocks to interagency relationships. "Oh, wad some power the giftie gie us, to see oursels as others see us! It wad frae monie a blunder free us, an' foolish notion."[3] Fortunately, both groups also recognize some limitations among themselves. The chest and council executives also note a serious block in the "oversensitivity of public agencies and those that raise funds independently to any suggestions from the council." Willingness to work together has evidently not yet spread much beyond the group of agencies which draw their funds from a common source.

Financial barriers: The lack of adequate funds and resulting unrest over financial limitations were listed by both agency and chest-council executives as a major barrier to effective relationships. The problem of allocating funds has not proved too difficult in most cities when campaign goals have been met. But tensions have often arisen when allocations have had to be reduced. Sharp differences in judgment sometimes develop about how much money should be allocated to particular fields of service and to particular agencies. Concern over inability to serve all groups and areas which need service was expressed by all workers.

Some of the relationship problems which arise around financial issues have been stated as follows:

> It is becoming increasingly difficult to get board members to serve on a finance committee because they know that their decisions, arrived at after days and weeks of earnest toil, and based on firsthand knowledge of the agency's needs, may be disregarded by the Chest Budget Committee. . . .

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[3] Robert Burns, "The Twa Dogs," quoted in John Bartlett, *Familiar Quotations* (Garden City, N. Y., Garden City Publishing Co., 1944), p. 285.

The agency sees the public as constantly demanding more and more services; the chest sees it as willing to pay less and less. With strict financial limitations imposed upon it, how can an agency explore new fields and encourage new enterprises? [4]

Personality Blocks: Chest and council executives reported that personality conflicts, professional jealousies, feelings of defensiveness and overprotectiveness and inadequacy represented 16.1 per cent of the barriers to co-operation listed by them. Personality conflicts and professional jealousies were also noted as barriers by agency executives, but were considered far less important. Considerable insecurity regarding their own positions and the role of their agency was evident in the replies of many workers in both chests and councils and in direct-service agencies. Feelings of inadequacy can in some cases be overcome by more professional training. In some instances, other causes of the insecurity can be identified and eliminated. Considering the widely differing background of education, training, and experience among workers in various agencies who try to work together in most communities, it probably is not surprising that some conflicts do develop. Some, of course, will exist in any group of people.

Other barriers: A number of other barriers were listed: differences in social standing between members of two agencies attempting a co-operative program; state laws on segregation and other legal blocks; overorganization, overlapping councils; conservative attitude of average citizens; lack of lay participation.

Factors Underlying Some of the Barriers

A number of factors undoubtedly underlie many of the blocks and barriers reported by agency workers and by chest-council executives. It may be profitable to explore some of these factors, at least in a tentative way.

Differences among agencies: Agencies vary in size, strength, and structure. Large and small agencies, strong and weak ones all co-operate and fail to co-operate. Their size and strength apparently do not determine whether they will co-operate.

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[4] Mrs. Howard E. Critchfield, "Friction Needn't Be Fatal!" in *Community,* published by Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., April, 1950, pp. 151-152.

But those factors do influence how and how well they work with other agencies. Some agencies are so organized that people in all levels can work with comparable persons in other agencies; in some agencies, only the senior executives, or those who have such approval, can participate in interagency efforts.

Differences in purposes, in fields of services, and in methods are probably more important as determinants of co-operation. When organizations are not working for the same or similar goals, when they do completely different things or use totally different methods, there is little basis for co-operation. Yet many of the agencies in chests and community councils have important differences in philosophy, values, and methods. They must have more in common than a need for funds and a general purpose of some kind of service to people. Agency differences are important, and the genuine and tested differences should be preserved. But more attention needs to be given to the question of what agencies actually have in common, what they can and desire to do together, before they are urged to develop close working relationships.

Inadequate planning structure: Many communities have a good deal of planning machinery, yet find that some of their interagency activities are confused and unsatisfactory. Some of the blocks which annoy and discourage agency workers and chest and council staff members are caused by faulty planning structure. Some of the requirements of such planning bodies have been stated as follows:

> Local communities must provide adequate structure through which to plan. Such structure must be broadly representative of the community. . . . It must avoid the criticism of being a planning agency for vested-interest groups. It must be adequately staffed, and its program and vision of social service needs must be broad and progressive. Only when such structure exists and begins to operate effectively will the local community itself begin to develop community-mindedness rather than agency-mindedness in its approach to problems. . . .[5]

Tendencies toward rigidity: Many social agencies became well established, with an organizational structure, officers, members, usually some financial resources, often some physical property or endowment, and a recognized service program, before they developed numerous formal or informal relationships with other organizations. What is not always recognized is that an organization must have a degree of strength, of "character" of its own, if it is to co-operate effectively with other organizations. At the same time, it is clear that co-operative relationships, by their very nature, require adaptability and flexibility. All social institutions are subject to tendencies toward inflexibility. A recognition of this fact, together with constant exposure of key leaders to changing social needs and to new methods can be at least beginning antidotes to this tendency.

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[5] Elmer J. Tropman, "The Concern of the Local Council," in *Interrelationships of Local, State, and National Planning*, published by the National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., July, 1949, pp. 3-4.

Confusion and conflicts of loyalties: Persons related to all kinds of social institutions sometimes become confused in their loyalties. Sometimes chest workers feel that they, and only they, see the needs of the "community" and are loyal to a broad concept of community needs. Some agency workers give the impression that they, and only they, are concerned about their clients, their members, their type of service. Sometimes their loyalty is so strong that they seem to find little if anything beyond their agency which can merit their support and their loyalty. Loyalties to small groups or organizations and to larger and more inclusive bodies are not in conflict, provided they have common purposes and values and methods. Agency loyalties and community loyalties are not necessarily two different things; agency loyalty can and should be loyalty to a part of the community life and can and should contribute to better community life. Chest and council executives and agency staff and board members need to come to understand the nature of loyalties. Loyalties to groups with different values and purposes, and using different methods, can come into conflict with each other. But most social agencies and chests and councils do have a great deal in common. Their loyalties need not conflict.

Voluntary participation or compulsion: A major issue underlying some of the blocks and barriers agency and interagency workers noted is the question of whether participation in co-operative efforts is to be by consent or compulsion. Voluntary participation is the essence of co-operation. Yet some agencies participate in chest and council activities because "they have to." They "have to, to get their money." "We could raise more money on our own, but you've got to co-operate these days." Until such agencies can come to see the values of joint effort, for them and for other parts of their community, they will be taking part under duress, and constantly encountering blocks and barriers. Some chest executives chafe because they are not given authority to "bring those agencies into line." Budget reviews are sometimes used, and surveys are sometimes initiated to serve as "clubs" over unsatisfactory or recalcitrant agencies. Decisions that endure are those which are reached by voluntary participation and mutual agreement. Agencies need a considerable degree of freedom, but they must not violate that freedom. Interagency bodies—chests and councils—need authority to meet their responsibilities, but that authority must not be misused or abused. The essence of freedom is responsibility to others; and the source of real authority is recognized ability and leadership. A balance between freedom and responsibility—for both chests and councils and for agencies—can be achieved, if approached experimentally by everyone involved.

Emotional and psychological barriers: The underlying cause of many of the problems of relationships, between individuals and organizations, can be found in the emotional problems the individuals face. Agency representatives and chest and council workers can be alert to act in ways which will not constitute a threat to the security of other workers. They can help to build up confidence by commending good workmanship. They can avoid making criticisms or showing displeasure or censure. They can be observant and objective about their own behavior, without becoming unduly introspective. They can avoid prolonged strain and excessive fatigue. Above all, they can cultivate a genuine respect and liking for people in other agencies who have different approaches to community problems than those used by their own agency. Emotional and psychological barriers to relationships cannot, as a general rule, be solved for others in the course of such relationships. But they can be better understood and taken into account.

Are Such Barriers Insurmountable?

Many of the blocks and barriers which agency and interagency workers encounter can be eliminated. Tensions which result from them can be reduced and turned into constructive channels. Some of the problems are inherent in any relationships, such as those which are due to fundamental differences in points of view. Even those can be understood and self-respecting compromises developed so that useful joint efforts may continue.

A "co-operative climate," an atmosphere where people are willing to work together for common purposes, is necessary. It can be developed.

Impelling Incentives to Overcome Barriers

Impelling incentives to overcome barriers and blocks to co-operative relationships and joint efforts are necessary. Many such incentives now exist. Some are material advantages: financial resources, drawn from a joint campaign; clearance to proceed with experimental projects and extensions of established programs; staff and board stimulation from broader contacts. Some of the incentives are more intangible: the satisfaction which comes from joining in socially useful joint activities for the improvement of community conditions; the sense of achievement from developing new relationships and new enterprises; appreciation of other persons and other organizations, different in their emphases on values, in methods of achieving similar or common goals, but comparable in the basic values they seek.

Chest and council workers and direct-service agency workers can well give more specific consideration to finding for themselves and for others the kind of deeper satisfactions without which no one continues long at difficult enterprises. Incentives exist today; they can be improved and can be utilized more intelligently and more constructively. New incentives can be developed.

* * *

Barriers and blocks to co-operative relationships and efforts undoubtedly exist. Some of them will continue, but they can be minimized. They can be dealt with constructively. They need not obstruct necessary and socially useful joint efforts. With correct attitudes and necessary skills, undergirded with proper professional education and training they can contribute to, rather than handicap, effective interagency relationships.

17

Attitudes, Insights, Skills, and Training of the Community Organization Worker

A GREAT deal of thought has been given to interagency relationships in the last decade. Local, direct-service agencies are vitally aware of these relationships, as evidenced by the literature and by conference program content. So, too, are the organizations operating at national and state levels.

Planning to meet community welfare needs calls for increased co-operation among service agencies. New co-operative patterns between voluntary agencies and official agencies are evolving. These developing and expanding relationships demand a particular type of leadership, with a set of basic, clearly defined attitudes, and a constellation of skills. These developments prescribe a certain quality of interagency and intergroup leadership.

Leadership

Leadership is "the activity of influencing people to co-operate toward some goal which they come to find desirable." [1] Leadership is a product of group life. It cannot take place in a vacuum. It is personality in action under group conditions.[2] The attitudes and behavior of followers are changed by leaders. Leadership is a social process. "Leadership is the process of mutual stimulation which by the successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause.[3] It is a process in which there is a give-and-take between leader and followers.

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[1] Ordway Tead, *The Art of Leadership* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935), p. 16.

[2] Emory S. Bogardus, *Leaders and Leadership* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1934), p. 3.

This concept of leadership is important in the community organization process, which seeks fulfillment through creative leadership, evoking participation and co-operation in furtherance of a common goal. In essence, leadership in the community organization process must be a democratic leadership, which does not seek to impose acceptance, but to stimulate co-operation.

This type of leadership cannot be limited to the professional staffs of chests and councils or other co-ordinating bodies. It must be found in each agency among professional and lay workers alike.

From time to time in this book it has been reiterated that community planning and co-ordination is the concern of all the organizations in the social welfare field. The assumption of this responsibility by the direct-service agencies is of the utmost importance to the consummation of the community organization process. It involves a basic attitude which recognizes that each agency is part of a larger whole—of the entire community—and therefore must play its part on the community stage.

Attitudes and Insights

Attitudes are determinants of action. The way one feels about something will determine that person's action toward the object of his feeling. The attitudes of the staff and lay controlling groups of an agency toward the welfare of the community will determine that agency's relationship to other community organizations. If truly interested in community welfare, the agency will tend to organize its services in relation to the content and efficiency of the program of other agencies and in relation to the needs of the community. Community-mindedness will temper agency-mindedness.

There is an essential one-ness about community life today. Group work, case work, health services, education, public welfare services, voluntary agencies—all are interrelated. Workers in these services must understand how to work together. Machinery alone will not suffice. There must be an honest willingness to co-operate for the larger good.

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[3] P. J. W. Pigors, *Leadership or Domination* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), p. 16.

Responsibility for effective co-operation among groups in a given community does not rest solely on the shoulders of the professional community organization worker; that is, the chest or community council personnel. The community organization process requires a two-way street. Every leadership situation involves followership. The success of democratic leadership rests upon an intelligent followership, earnestly and voluntarily joining together to achieve the common goal.

At this point community organization too often breaks down. Either the worker in community organization is a "doer" who does not make possible a truly co-operative approach to the concern at hand, or the "followers" are such in name only. Not all groups or representatives of groups participate because of a genuine desire to co-operate. Motivations are mixed. Some join because it is the popular thing to do—they climb aboard the "band wagon." Others participate through fear of having something "put over" on them if they are not present to defend themselves. Group self-interest, rather than community welfare, holds sway in such cases.

Clearly, such attitudes are not conducive to the mutual trust and respect necessary to the co-operative process. To make joint efforts more likely and more productive, there must be "changed attitudes on the part of the leadership of some agencies, regarding their own agencies' roles and those of other agencies; less emphasis on an exclusive role, on the uniqueness of their agencies, less possessiveness and less protectiveness. . . ."[4]

Leadership, as stated before, must be truly democratic. The ideas of all concerned must be taken into account. Such leadership must persistently press for responsible participation; it must avoid manipulation. The community organization worker believes in the capacity of other people. He avoids the temptation to *do* things *for* the community. He enables the community to do things for itself. He believes that communities have a right to self-determination. He must believe that the community is master of its own destiny. The community organization worker thinks in terms of the future; he welcomes change as the only mode of growth and the principle of life itself. He believes in the so-called common man's ability to grasp the fundamental and essential insights of life. He believes that the seed he sows in the minds of men will come to fruition.

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[4] Ray Johns, *The Co-operative Process Among National Social Agencies* (New York: Association Press, 1946), p. 242.

The community organization worker recognizes that communities, like individuals and groups, are different; that they are dynamic and ever changing. He understands that the process of relating groups to each other is more important than the form or structure these relationships take.

The community organization worker perceives the necessity of accepting the community as it is, and of being accepted by the community if a satisfactory relationship is to be established. The professional worker sees his role in the community as an "enabler," of helping the community to discover, identify, and define its needs and formulate its own program to meet these needs.

Responses to a questionnaire [5] sent to selected community chest and council personnel tend to underline the importance of the attitudes needed by the worker for effective community organization practice. Over 60 per cent of the chest and council workers who responded explicitly stressed the need for a "broad basic understanding of people," a positive attitude toward differing personalities, an interest and "belief in people." Others implied this attitude in remarks such as "respect for contributions of others," "open-minded—receptive to all ideas and suggestions."

Necessary Skills for the Co-operative Process

Man's determination to accomplish some objective, to reach a certain goal, inevitably leads him in search of the requisite tools necessary to the realization of his aim. Good intentions are not enough. Skills must be coupled with attitudes.

BASIC SKILLS OF THE COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION WORKER

The most basic skill is that of working democratically with people in groups. The committee is a key unit of operation in the work of planning and co-ordination for social welfare services. The group conference is another important device in the work of community organization. The ability to work with people in these and other group settings is of vital importance to the process. The community organization worker must possess skill in effecting mutually satisfying interpersonal relations among the members of a given group. He must have the "capacity to initiate and sustain a direct helping relationship with individual people and groups of people." [6] The fact that the individuals and groups with which the community organization worker deals are often representatives of other groups, makes his task more difficult.

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[5] Material is from responses to An Inquiry to Selected Chest and Council Staff Members, sent out by the authors.

Replies to the questionnaire study give ample evidence that community organization workers are aware of the need of skill in working with people in groups. About half of the respondents specifically mentioned "ability to stimulate, motivate, and guide group thinking," to give "leadership through the group process."

Though the community organization worker's role is one of helping and not controlling, he nevertheless has an "active, dynamic, purposeful" [7] role to perform. He must have the ability to be a creative partner and participant in the determination of the objectives as well as the expert in the application of the process of community organization. "He must often interpret, suggest, and analyze alternatives, and enter fully as a dynamic partner into a creative group process by which goals will be chosen, by which decisions will be hammered into shape and translated into action." [8] He must be able to "implement good notions with indicated action." [9]

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[6] Kenneth L. M. Pray, "When Is Community Organization Social Work Practice?" *Community Organization–Its Nature and Setting* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947), p. 8.

[7] C. Whit Pfeiffer, "The Community Organization Worker in Action," *The Job of the Community Organization Worker* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., June, 1948), p. 16.

[8] Arthur Dunham, "What Is the Job of the Community Organization Worker?" *ibid.*, p. 10.

[9] Unidentified quotations which occur in the remainder of this chapter are taken from the replies to the questionnaires sent to chest and council personnel.

SPECIFIC SKILLS

The tasks of the community organization worker are many and varied. One writer suggests that they run the whole gamut from fact finder, analyst, planner, catalyst, interpreter, educator, conferee, negotiator, mediator, and consultant to organizer, agent, executive aide, advocate, promoter, social actionist, and militant leader.[10]

Though this extensive list may prove provocative to the student of community organization, the ensuing material will be limited to a brief discussion of the specific skills involved in research, planning, administration, and interpretation.

These skills were noted most frequently by practicing community organization workers. Every respondent mentioned at least one of these specific skills.

In the practice of community organization these skills assume such importance in the equipment of the community organizer that the basic skill of working with people is quite often lost to sight. It should constantly be kept in mind that the basic skill of developing and maintaining effective individual and group relationships is of paramount importance and underlies the more specific skills.

Fact finding: Factual data are basic to any sound planning. The community organization worker must be able to get the facts about a community, to come to understand the community and to identify its needs. He must know its resources and appraise them with respect to needs. The worker should be familiar with research methodology and be able to judge the scope and intensity of the studies required. The community organization worker must have "ability in research" and "ability in applying research findings to problems of community organizations."

Establishing Priorities: Studies and investigation expose needs. Skill is required not only in identifying these needs but also in establishing priorities among them, on the basis of urgency and on the basis of a favorable community climate. Planning must develop a basic strategy which will favor the development of a program to meet the needs receiving priority. Judgment and a sense of timing are required.

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[10] Arthur Hillman, "A Federal Agency's Relation to Community Planning," *Social Forces,* Vol. XXV, December, 1946, pp. 183-189.

Organizing: Success in achieving results with regard to the selected needs will depend upon a specific program. It is not enough to recognize a need and to point it out. "Recreation for all" may be a recognized need in a community, but the mere knowledge that such a need exists will not bring about the desired results of increased services or of a more equitable distribution of services. A specific program must be formulated. The community organization worker must be skillful in assisting the community to develop specific and well thought-out plans for meeting the needs. These plans would consider the necessary mobilization of resources—manpower, finance, and other aids. The community organization worker must have an "aptitude for administration."

Interpreting: The program must be interpreted. People must be educated to the necessity for the program and what it hopes to accomplish. Public opinion must be mobilized in support of the program. Perhaps the skills of many community organization workers fall short of this educational-promotional task. It is true that public relations and interpretation call for specialized knowledge and experience. The community organization worker, however, cannot simply turn over this important assignment of interpreting a program to anyone who has the technical skills. True interpretation depends upon a clear understanding of what is involved. Thus, the primary responsibility for telling the story must repose with those who know it best. The worker must have "publicity skills"; he must be able "to present ideas effectively, either orally or in written form." As a general principle, it is better for a worker with a thorough understanding of an agency or of a program to interpret the agency or program, though somewhat ineptly, than for a publicity expert, with all his skills, to interpret something he does not truly understand, or understands only superficially.

SKILLS REQUIRED OF THE GROUP PARTICIPANTS

It is evident that the agency and group representatives in the community organization process must have developed certain attitudes and skills. The underlying attitudes have already been stated. More needs to be said about the skills which the group representatives must possess if they are to participate intelligently.

As a group representative he must understand and have the ability to interpret the role of his group: he must understand and express his agency's objectives and philosophy. He must have the knowledge, insight, and ability to participate in identifying social problems and selecting the social goals. He must be able to help his group to identify not only its interest and place in the social goals envisioned, but also the interests of other groups, and of the community as a whole. He should be capable of adjusting himself to other persons in the group, thus facilitating the functioning of the group as an entity.

The group or agency representative must be competent to assist in developing the necessary machinery to realize the goals established. He must develop mastery of the known principles of community planning and co-ordination so that they may guide his decisions and actions.

Conversely, the skill of the community organization worker in working with individuals and groups will assist the group representatives in developing their set of skills.

Training the Community Organization Worker

With the variety of roles the community organization worker is expected to play and the number of skills he is expected to possess, the matter of adequate training becomes important. Arthur Dunham[11] suggests six elements in the equipment of the community organization worker, over and above the basic professional education for any social worker:

1. *Firsthand experience in dealing with people,* preferably in a direct-service agency. Inasmuch as the community organization worker is concerned with serving people, it is assumed that an initial experience in helping and working with people will tend to make him think of welfare problems in personal and concrete terms.
2. *A sound working knowledge of the field of social welfare.* This would include a knowledge of all types of so-

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[11] Dunham, *op. cit.,* pp. 11-13.

cial welfare resources at the local, state, and national levels.

3. *A sound philosophy of community organization.* The worker must have a philosophy of community organization grounded in democracy and "oriented to its values of ultimate control by the whole people; the right of self-determination by the individual, the group and the community; co-operation and mutual participation in the achievement of common goals."[12]
4. *An understanding and working knowledge of community organization.* The worker should be familiar with the objectives of community organization, with the types of problems encountered, and with the types and functions of agencies. An understanding of methods and principles is also essential. It is presumed that the worker will have gained much of this knowledge during his professional education.
5. *Skill in the practice of community organization.* Supervised field work and experience should contribute to this skill.
6. *Personal qualities.* The community organization worker must possess all of the personal qualities of any social worker, plus those of the executive.

Each of the six elements listed by Dunham was identified by the chest and council people in answering the inquiry. "Firsthand experience in dealing with people" was mentioned with greatest frequency. Some respondents included experience in administration as well as in the duties of practitioners. "Skill in the practice of community organization" should be secured through "apprenticeship in chest or council as well as through supervised field work placements." Some suggested that persons who were to be executives of chests or councils first should have "supervisory experience in agencies carrying responsibility for community organization." The need for group work experience was also cited.

With regard to the educational requirements, an overwhelming number of respondents to the questionnaire listed "graduation from an approved school of social work" as essential. Others indicated a willingness to permit substituting an "equivalent of two years of professional education." A few suggested one year of graduate training in an accredited school, and some stated that a "good general education" or an undergraduate degree with a sociology major would suffice. A few persons believed professional education for community organization to be unnecessary.

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[12] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

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Interagency relationships are inevitable if social welfare needs are to be met. No one organization can provide all the services required. No organization can live to itself in today's community. Organizations which serve the needs of people must work together closely. Effective working relationships are imperative. The quality of these relationships depends upon the attitudes and skills of the individuals involved—of direct-service agency personnel and of the staff members of planning and co-ordinating bodies.

18

Some Guiding Principles

PRINCIPLES are fundamental or general truths, arrived at through inductive study and appraisal of successful experience. Principles are "guideposts"—they serve as the frame of reference for the community organization process. With increased understanding of and experience in community organization, new principles are emerging. These principles will be presented under three major headings: general principles of community organization, principles with regard to neighborhood councils, and principles with regard to agency relationships.

General Principles of Community Organization [1]

1. *Community organization is a means and not an end.* As in case work or group work, community organization seeks to enrich the life of the individual. The individual is the *raison d'être* for community organization. Organizations, personnel, program, knowledge, and skills are only means to an end—the welfare and growth of people is the end.

2. *Communities, like individuals and groups, are different.* Each has its own peculiarities, its own problems and needs. To deal with communities effectively, they must be individualized.

3. *Communities, like individuals, have a right to self-determination.* In community organization the worker enables the community to develop its own policies, plans, and programs. They are not superimposed.

4. *Social need is the basis for organization.* The determining

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[1] Many of the following principles have been adapted from the statement on principles prepared by Florence G. Cassidy for the Michigan Committee on the Study of Community Organization, March, 1940.

factor in initiating, continuing, modifying, or terminating an organization, is social need. An organization should come into existence to meet a felt need, and should be continued only if it adjusts to changing needs.

5. *Community welfare rather than agency self-interest should be the first consideration in determining program.* The program of an organization should be defined in relation to the content of the programs of other agencies, and in relation to the needs of the community. No agency should pre-empt so large a portion of the community problems or so large a geographical area as to inhibit the development of other organizations when the total problem is apparently beyond its own resources.

6. *Co-ordination is a process of growth.* Co-ordination through authoritarian pressure and repression is not compatible with democratic principles. Co-ordination should be the result of intelligent recognition of common interests and objectives. Effective social planning is the result of "learning through doing." Thus, the interagency body is a laboratory within which this practice takes place.

7. *Community organization structure should be kept as simple as possible.* Too much machinery may well bog down and get in the way of process, which relates groups to each other so as to meet the welfare needs of the community more effectively.

8. *Services should be distributed equitably.* The social services of a community should be made available equally and without discrimination to all who need them.

9. *Diversity in program approach should be respected.* The determining factors in program approach should be community needs. A community plan which utilizes diverse contributions, rather than forcing agency regimentation should be the rule.

10. *There should be broad representation in interagency bodies.* Every group whose interests are represented by the interagency body should be given the opportunity for an explicit voicing of its interests in the council, where the common problems of the several groups are under consideration.

11. *There must be balance between centralization and decentralization.* Agencies, though united in a community chest

for financial security, or in a council for common interests, may maintain at the same time their own special interests and their own individual programs. This permits common organization for common interests and special organizations for special interests.

12. *Barriers to communication must be broken down.* Community organization should result in freer contacts among the various social groups within a community. Attitudes of concern for the welfare of the total community must be developed through the exposure of individuals and groups to new and ever-widening interests and to new associations, and through opportunities to work together on common projects. The greater the differentiation in community life, the greater the need to develop an understanding of the needs and contributions of other social groups.

13. *Communities need professional help.* The role of the professional worker is that of helping the community to discover, identify, and plan to meet its social welfare needs. The success of community organization depends in large part upon the ability of the worker to bring about voluntary participation in achieving a common goal.

Principles with Regard to Neighborhood Councils

Though the general principles above are applicable to the community organization process whether it takes place on the community-wide level or on the neighborhood level, the principles with regard to neighborhood councils have been singled out for special attention because of the growing interest in the neighborhood council movement. The following are principles of organization and operation.[2]

1. *The function of the neighborhood council should be community organization rather than the direct operation of services.* Quite often a neighborhood council becomes so enthusiastic about some project that it wants to get immediately to work and do the job itself. By confusing the co-ordinating

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[2] Some of these principles are adapted from the report on Community Co-ordination of the National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency (Washington, D.C.; Government Printing Office, November, 1946), pp. 15-17.

and planning functions with that of a direct-service agency, many councils have died prematurely.

2. *The neighborhood council should be composed primarily of delegates of the organizations of the neighborhood.* There should be broad representation of local civic, social, religious, professional, consumer, and business groups. The make-up of councils is tending to shift from membership of individuals to membership of organizations.

3. *The organizational pattern of neighborhood councils should be kept simple and flexible.* There should be only enough structure to permit the council to function adequately. It has been suggested that project committees that end with the solution of a problem seem more effective than functional divisions usual to a city-wide council.

4. *Neighborhood councils should be autonomous bodies.* They should be free to determine their own program and to take action.

5. *Neighborhood councils within a given community should be related to each other.* This relationship may be accomplished through a city-wide association of neighborhood councils or through a council division or committee composed of representatives of local councils who meet regularly to exchange ideas and to plan for joint action.

6. *Neighborhood councils should be related to city-wide councils.* Community welfare councils have long been concerned with bringing people and services together. This has been primarily a one-way process, from the agencies to the people. Through neighborhood councils, closely related to over-all welfare councils, the neighborhood can make the larger community aware of gaps and inequalities of service. By representation of neighborhood councils on the city-wide council, it becomes possible for the over-all council to keep sensitive to the needs of the people and to enlist the participation of neighborhoods in getting needs met.

7. *The program of a neighborhood council should not be confined to one interest.* They should be concerned with the total field of welfare. Many councils become concerned with a single interest or project, such as organizing a recreation center. When one such aim is accomplished, the council mem-

bers lose interest and the council dies for lack of a continuing program.

8. *Professional staff should be related to neighborhood councils.* Staff service on a continuing basis by trained and experienced community organization workers is recognized as necessary if the neighborhood councils are to function effectively. Staff service made available by the city-wide council should be selected jointly with the neighborhood groups.

Principles with Regard to Agency Relationships [3]

As indicated in Chapters 12 and 13, many types of interagency relationships are necessary. With the multiplicity of social welfare agencies now operating on local, state, regional, and national levels, the problem of relationships begins to assume gigantic proportions. What should be the nature of the relationships? With which groups or agencies should relationships be established and maintained? What determines which relationships to maintain? These and similar questions point to a definite need for guiding principles. The following material is an attempt to state some of the basic principles with the hope that they may assist agencies in a more orderly approach to the problem of interagency relationships.

1. *Each agency should develop a basic policy determining the nature of the relationships to be maintained.* These relationships may be classified as: (a) *worker-oriented relationships,* (b) *agency-oriented relationships,* and (c) *community-oriented relationships.*[4]

   a. *Worker-oriented relationships—those which agency* staff members take on in their capacity as individuals, either as professional workers or as citizens. Membership in professional organizations, such as the American Association of Social Workers, the American Association of Group Workers, or the American Association of Medical Social Workers, is primarily for personal professional development. They do have value for the agency through increased professional effectiveness, but they are primarily personal responsibilities.

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[3] See Harleigh B. Trecker, *Social Group Work—Principles and Practices* (New York: Woman's Press, 1948), pp. 148-153, for a discussion of assumptions underlying interagency relationships.

[4] Adapted from Ray Johns's chapter, "Sharing in Co-operative Community Relationships," in *The Executive Role in Y.M.C.A. Administration,* Gren O. Pierrel, Editor (New York: Association Press, 1951).

b. *Agency-oriented relationships*—those which are assumed primarily as a means of furthering the work of the agency. These may include relationships with agencies engaged in rendering similar or related services in the community. They may also include committee assignments with the chest and council. Such relationships may also involve a local agency with its state, regional, and national bodies.

c. *Community-oriented relationships*—those which staff members accept on behalf of the agency or as professional workers, which are primarily for the purpose of furthering some useful civic enterprise. Relationships in this category would include such groups as a Civic Unity Council, a Delinquency Prevention Council, or other bodies which seek to develop better understanding between people of different religious and racial groups, or to develop better services to youth.

2. *Agencies should establish criteria for the selection and evaluation of relationships,* such as those suggested in Chapter 15.

3. *Relationships should be reviewed periodically.* No matter how careful the selection, the needs for specific relationships may change. The community is dynamic; new needs emerge, new agencies arise, the value of relationships increase or decline. These changes make a periodic evaluation of relationships imperative.

4. *Responsibility for maintaining relationships should be delegated.* The duty of maintaining these relationships should not fall solely on the executive, nor should the task be assigned only to professional staff members. The responsibility should be distributed appropriately among the staff and lay leaders, in terms of their responsibility within the agency and in terms of their own interests and skills.

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In this chapter, the authors have not attempted to assemble and set forth all of the principles in community organization.

Many such principles are presented either implicitly or explicitly, in the various chapters of this book. The present chapter was written for the purpose of providing the student of community organization an understanding of some of the basic principles, and to provide him with a source of ready reference.

19

Frontiers in Community Organization

GREAT strides have been made in community organization for social welfare in recent decades, as the earlier chapters of this book have indicated.

A number of bench marks of this progress can be quickly identified. The publication of Eduard C. Lindeman's *The Community* in 1921 marked an awareness of community forces and needs. The first general text on community organization was written by Jesse F. Steiner in 1925. The concept of community organization as a method became clearer through the case studies assembled by Walter Pettit in 1928. The work of local committees, authorized by the community organization section of the National Conference of Social Work in 1938, stimulated analysis of the nature of community organization for social welfare. An important series of writings followed, including those in the *Social Work Year Book* by Arthur Dunham and Arlien Johnson. Wayne McMillen's *Community Organization for Social Welfare* emphasized process and social agency structure. Arthur Hillman's *Community Organization and Planning* related community social welfare services to wider aspects of community planning. The organization in 1946 of the American Association for the Study of Community Organization has provided a channel for continuous joint study by many people.

Wider vistas, however, have become apparent. As Arlien Johnson has said: "Social work has dimly glimpsed the tremendous significance of . . . community organization work as a service utilizing the same body of principles and skills that apply to helping individuals with their problems of social relationships. The urgency of the need for this service should inspire social workers to new efforts to define the content and method of community organization. . . . To enable people to 'think together and evolve workable judgments' in the interests of the larger society is to help them to achieve a more abundant life, individually and collectively."[1]

This chapter will outline some of the areas for exploration and experimentation. ". . . there is need right now for innovation, discovery, and invention in the organization of health and welfare services and in the structure or structures for relating these services."[2] The needed frontiers will be discussed under the following headings: (1) Research Frontiers; (2) Planning-and-Co-ordination Frontiers; (3) Direct-Service Frontiers; (4) Public Agency Frontiers; (5) Service-Reorganization Frontiers; (6) Financial Frontiers; (7) Personnel Frontiers; (8) Interpretation Frontiers. Judgments about necessary frontiers, stated by chest and council workers and by agency workers, will be included.

Research Frontiers

Fundamental research, which will assemble and analyze data related to community organization, is urgently needed. "We need fundamental research by our agencies and universities with respect to agency programs and services and methods of community organization on a scale we have not yet attempted or hardly imagined. . . . 'The disturbing thing about the present situation,' (as Dr. Eveline M. Burns pointed out at the 1948 New York State Conference of Social Work), 'is that on so many of the major issues we have so little factual material on which to base an answer. As a profession, we are badly lacking in basic research.'"[3] Chest and council executives repeatedly stated the need for "improvement and use of social research." Agency workers indicated the same need in their responses. Both fundamental or pure research and applied research are needed.

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[1] Arlien Johnson, "Science and Social Work," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947), p. 16.

[2] Rudolph T. Danstedt, "Current Conflicts in the Approach to Community Organization," *The Social Service Review,* March, 1950, Vol. XXIV, No. 1, p. 67.

[3] *Ibid.,* pp. 67, 73.

Planning-and-Co-ordination Frontiers

One of the high priorities in frontiers identified by chest and council workers was for "more effective planning through community councils" and for "more money spent on planning." Social welfare planning in small cities and rural areas, closer co-operation between group work and case work, co-operation with "physical-planning" agencies, and participation of government agencies in community planning were also mentioned repeatedly. "So far we have shown little social invention in approaching this problem of co-ordination," one community organization worker concludes.[4] The necessity for re-examination of planning and co-ordinating methods and structures is inherent in a recent study of "Local Community Organization for Health and Welfare," promulgated by Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc. Such a study is recognition of the urgent need for ascertaining the best ways and means "to plan in an orderly way within the democratic framework" what is thought to be "the desirable point between rigid control and chaotic 'laissez-faire.' "[5]

Direct-Service Frontiers

The importance of expanding services for aged people is becoming increasingly recognized as one of the planning frontiers. "The Underserviced, the Aged: In fifty years we may expect one out of every eight persons to be sixty-five years old or older. Are we to waste the skills and wisdom of a lifetime . . . ? Our society today cannot afford such an enormous economic loss, quite apart from the human cruelty involved in such a policy. Here is another great opportunity in which voluntary social work may experiment and pioneer."[6]

Other areas for increased services are being noted. Expansion of child care services and extension of services to underserved rural areas, were mentioned by many community organization workers. Mental hygiene services represent another major area for experimentation and expansion. "The skills and insights of mental hygiene must be applied to industrial problems, to employer-employee relationships, to interracial and intergroup relationships, to politics and government. Every relationship of man to man cries out for greater insight and understanding to insure happy, creative lives. Here is a frontier more complex, more exciting, than any physical frontier."[7]

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[4] Danstedt, *op. cit.*, p. 72.

[5] *Ibid.*

[6] Robert H. MacRae, "Under Construction—the Next Fifty Years," in *Community* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc.), September, 1950, Vol. XXVI, No. 1, p. 6.

Public Agency Frontiers

It is a well-known fact that in many communities public agencies do not participate effectively in the planning and co-ordination of community social welfare services. Interagency structures—chests and councils—first developed their planning and co-ordinating functions during the period when voluntary social welfare agencies provided the major proportion of services and when private agencies had arrived at the point where joint relationships became obviously necessary for them. They had trained personnel which could participate in such interagency relationships. Public agencies now provide an overwhelming proportion of services; they have by far the largest number of workers serving people; their funds are secured from tax sources rather than through community chests; the situation has therefore radically changed.

"Division of labor between public and private agencies, even though this is blurred and opportunistic at many points, among case work services, group work services, and health services, has brought great progress and refinement of technique and method to the health and welfare field. But the time seems to be here . . . for significant progress in the area of co-ordination of these specialities. . . ."[8]

Service-Reorganization Frontiers

Chest and agency executives, responding to the authors' inquiry, suggested the possibility of administrative reorganization of some services according to function. Some of them also advocated the consolidation of a number of separate national health agencies, both as a way to reduce the number of different financial campaigns and as a way to integrate health services. Community Research Associates, Inc., promulgator of many studies, has been devoting energy to the Family Unit Reporting Service project in St. Paul, among whose objectives is a search for the area of common concern among the various disciplines in the health and welfare field. The tentative findings of this project—a high proportion of multiproblem families among the group served by organized charities—at least raise a query as to whether some new form of group practice or service is not indicated. Community organization must increasingly be directed toward attaining a maximum flexibility of services, programs and agency structure, responsive to changing community needs. Some of the important frontiers of the future will undoubtedly be in the area of reorganization of service structure.

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[7] *Ibid.*

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 71, 72.

Financial Frontiers

One of the largest groups of frontier items mentioned by chest and council executives was in the area of more adequate financing of agency services. "Expanded and improved federated financing, including health appeals"—"funds for capital needs"—"better budgeting"—"closer relationships between fund raising and planning" rated high in their priorities of frontiers. Inadequacy of funds for services, particularly in a period of expanding needs and rising costs, was stated by agency workers as a major barrier to effective co-operative efforts. It also suggests a frontier.

Certain basic issues in the area of federation, defined broadly as a joint community approach to community planning and fund raising, have been raised by Ralph Blanchard, Executive Director of Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., particularly the complicated problem of broadening federated appeals for financing voluntary agencies. The increased number of separate campaigns by health agencies has sharpened this issue, along with the difficulty many chests have encountered in raising additional funds commensurate with increased costs.[9]

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[9] Ralph Blanchard, *The Future of Federation* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., 1950).

Considerable exploration and some experimentation of federated-financing methods has been in process. The "Chicago Plan," whereby the community fund solicits corporations and employees, and agencies conduct their own supplementary campaigns with other supporters, has been under consideration in several communities. The United Fund of Michigan has included most of the national organizations which previously conducted separate campaigns as well as community chest agencies. Joint capital fund efforts and various methods of supplementary financing by member agencies of community chests have also been the object of consideration and experimentation.

"Successful federation is not controlled by a rigid predetermined formula or policy. It is a co-operative undertaking—fluid, moving, growing. . . . It has changed in the past; it will change in the future."[10]

Personnel Frontiers

Personnel is at the center of more effective services, both in the direct-service agencies and in interagency organizations. Social work itself is as yet only tentatively recognized among the established professions. Community organization in social work is only beginning to identify its functions clearly and to refine its methods and techniques. Basic research and professional training are in early stages of development.

Levels of education and practice in social work generally have been rising. National voluntary agencies, professional organizations, and schools of social work have formulated standards and emphasized improved professional education. Local and national interagency planning bodies have been influencing the quality of personnel. Public agencies, which have in general lagged behind private agencies in stressing the necessity for qualified personnel, have in recent years adopted improved standards governing the selection, tenure, compensation, and training for local personnel.

The more recent development of community organization as a method and a process in social work has caused a lag in professional training in this field, both for direct-service workers and for community organization workers. Professional education for community organization responsibilities—based primarily on the insights of social psychology and sociology, and utilizing the skills of social case work, group work, and education—has become one of the important frontiers.

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[10] Edward L. Ryerson, "Freedom Within Federation," *The United Way in Planning and Financing Health and Welfare Services* (New York: Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., 1950), p. 14.

Interpretation Frontiers

Skill in interpreting changing community needs of all types and of all groups which constitute a community, and skill in interpreting a great variety of specialized services, are greatly needed. Joint efforts among agencies have become widely accepted as means of securing funds more economically. Considerable acceptance has been achieved about the value of joint planning to eliminate overlapping services and to promote more efficient and more effective services. Joint interpretation of specific needs and individual services, however, is as yet far too inadequate to secure and maintain broad citizen support.

Interpretation is a responsibility of both individual agencies and of interagency organizations. Direct-service agencies must become more effective in interpreting their own services and the needs they seek to meet, and their part in the total community service structure. Interagency organizations—chests and councils—must somehow find ways to awaken sharp interest and concern for specific social problems and for the individual services which are directed toward their solution. If federated financing and joint planning and co-ordination of services are to survive—as necessary methods to prevent community chaos—this interpretation frontier must be explored and conquered.

* * *

Social work in general, and community organization in particular, must explore these and other frontiers. New horizons beckon. "The important new role for social work . . . involves the ability to analyze broad economic, social, physical, educational, and cultural aspects of world, national, and community life; to appraise their effect upon the welfare of the men and women and children concerned; to ascertain ways in which these broad areas of life may better promote the well-being of individuals and communities; and to bring together the professions and resources needed to improve them."[12]

Community organization for social welfare can conquer its frontiers. "The skillful and sensitive application of the community organization method in social work is one of the greatest potential contributions of our profession to the development of the whole of community life, without which there can be no freedom as we know it and want it for all people."[13]

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[12] Donald S. Howard, "New Horizons for Social Work," *The Compass,* Journal of the American Association of Social Workers, Vol. XXVIII, No. 7, November, 1947, p. 9.

[13] Leonard Mayo, "Community Organization in 1946," *Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1946), p. 138.

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Notes on Method Used in Questionnaire Study On Interagency Relationships [1]

A special inquiry was directed to staff members of direct-service agencies in order to secure firsthand information about the relationships they maintain on behalf of their organization, what values they see, and what problems they encounter.

The questionnaire first asked workers to list by name the community agencies with which they maintain relationships for their organization. They were then asked to classify each relationship listed, on the following basis, using the classification which most nearly characterized each relationship:

A—for relationships which have primarily been limited to furthering *acquaintance* with other agency workers;
I—for relationships which have resulted in considerable exchange of *information;*
C—for relationships which, in addition to furthering acquaintance and exchanging information, have resulted in specific *consultation* with representatives of other agencies;
P—for relationships which, in addition to those above, have resulted in specific *planning* with representatives of other agencies;
O—for relationships which have also resulted in definite *operating responsibilities* with representatives of other agencies.

The workers were then asked to rate the effectiveness of each relationship according to the following five-point scale: very effective, fairly effective, neither effective nor ineffective, fairly ineffective or very ineffective. They were asked to select the three or four agency relationships they had listed which they considered the most important and to indicate for each why they considered it important.

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[1] See chapters 12, 14, and 15.

The basis for the selection of relationships was sought by asking workers to indicate new relationships taken on within the last two years, and those which were declined or discontinued, with the reason, in each case. The way in which relationships were selected and allocated among different staff members was also asked, as well as the general policy and practice regarding relationships in each organization. Workers were asked to state the problems they had encountered in the interagency relationships they reported and to note any "blocks" or barriers to effective interagency relationships in their community. They were asked to report what interorganization relationships were carried for their organization by board members or other lay representatives and to comment on their value and effectiveness.

The sampling represents workers in all types of agencies—child care, family, health, recreation, and community center, and other miscellaneous agencies, both public and voluntary. Each agency was asked to have the senior executive, a department head or other supervisior, and a nonsupervisory worker fill out a separate questionnaire. Confidentiality was assured by having each enclose his completed questionnaire in a sealed envelope.

Small, medium-size and large cities, in all parts of the country, were selected, based on the proportion of the country's total population living in such cities.

Replies were received from 503 workers in forty-seven cities in thirty states. The cities and states, with the number of workers and the number of replies received from each group appear on pages 264 and 266. Nearly 800 questionnaires were sent out; a return of 63 per cent was secured.

A special inquiry was also sent to chest and council staff members, mostly executives, asking them what relationships problems they had noted—what were the most serious "blocks" to effective interagency relationships in their communities. They were also asked whether they had noted any particular restlessness or dissatisfaction among agency personnel regard-

Cities from Which Data Were Secured from Direct-Service Agency Staff Members

Under 50,000	50,000 to 100,000	100,000 to 250,000	250,000 to 500,000	Over 500,000
Aberdeen, S. D.	Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Albany, N. Y.	Birmingham, Ala.	Boston, Mass.
Appleton, Wis.	Davenport, Iowa	Dayton, Ohio	Indianapolis, Ind.	Buffalo, N. Y.
Colorado Springs, Col.	Lansing, Mich.	Des Moines, Iowa	Kansas City, Mo.	Cleveland, Ohio
Ft. Dodge, Iowa	Little Rock, Ark.	Ft. Worth, Tex.	Louisville, Ky.	Milwaukee, Wis.
Green Bay, Wis.	Lincoln, Neb.	Grand Rapids, Mich.	Minneapolis, Minn.	St. Louis, Mo.
Joplin, Mo.	Muskegon, Mich.	Hartford, Conn.	Portland, Ore.	
Nashua, N. H.	Pasadena, Calif.	Long Beach, Calif.	Providence, R. I.	
Vicksburg, Miss.	Pawtucket, R. I.	Miami, Fla.		
	Phoenix, Ariz.	Peoria, Ill.		
	Schenectady, N. Y.	Reading, Pa.		
	Shreveport, La.	Springfield, Mass.		
	Topeka, Kansas	Wilmington, Del.		
	Waterbury, Conn.	Worcester, Mass.		
	Wheeling, W. Va.			

Cities from Which Data Were Secured from Chest and Council Personnel

Under 50,000	50,000 to 100,000	100,000 to 250,000	250,000 to 500,000	Over 500,000
Annapolis, Md.	Berkeley, Calif.	Akron, Ohio	Atlanta, Ga.	Boston, Mass.
Auburn, N. Y.	Brockton, Mass.	Albany, N. Y.	Cincinnati, Ohio	Cleveland, Ohio
Bangor, Maine	Evansville, Ind.	Bridgeport, Conn.	Denver, Colo.	Detroit, Mich.
Bloomington, Ill.	Fresno, Calif.	Cambridge, Mass.	Louisville, Ky.	Los Angeles, Calif.
Ft. Lauderdale, Fla.	Greensboro, N. C.	Chattanooga, Tenn.	Newark, N. J.	
Ithaca, N. Y.	Kalamazoo, Mich.	Des Moines, Iowa	Oakland, Calif.	
Lexington, Ky.	Little Rock, Ark.	Ft. Worth, Tex.	Portland, Ore.	
Raleigh, N. C.	Macon, Ga.	Grand Rapids, Mich.	Providence, R. I.	
San Mateo, Calif.	Portland, Maine	Lowell, Mass.	San Antonio, Tex.	
Stamford, Conn.	Pueblo, Colo.	Norfolk, Va.	Seattle, Wash.	
Waukegan, Ill.	Springfield, Ill.	Reading, Pa.		
	Winston-Salem, N. C.	San Diego, Calif.		
		Spokane, Wash.		

ing interagency relationships, joint planning, and federated financing, and to indicate its seriousness. The reasons and the causes for the restlessness, too, were asked. They were also requested to rate their community's interagency services according to the following functions: co-ordination of services, improving the quality of services, fact finding, common services, achieving necessary adjustments, joint publicity and interpretation, federated fund raising. A five-point scale of very well done, quite well done, fairly well done, not very well done, and poorly done, was suggested. The chest and council executives were also asked to comment as definitively as possible on the attitudes, skills, experience, specialized training, and professional education needed for effective community organization practice, and to identify some of the most important frontiers of community organization for social welfare in the decade ahead.

Replies were received from chest and council executives in 50 cities in 25 states. These data, while too limited to be statistically significant, provided stimulating ideas and suggestions, particularly when compared to and contrasted with the data received from workers in direct-service agencies.

TABLE A

NUMBER OF STAFF MEMBERS IN DIRECT-SERVICE AGENCIES FROM WHOM DATA WERE SECURED AND NUMBER OF RELATIONSHIPS REPORTED BY SIZE OF CITY

City Size	Staff Members		Relationships Reported	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Under 50,000	51	10.1	505	9.2
50,000 to 100,000	116	23.1	1,469	26.6
100,000 to 250,000	165	32.8	1,792	32.4
250,000 to 500,000	103	20.5	1,046	18.9
Over 500,000	68	13.5	712	12.9
Totals	503	100.0	5,524	100.0

TABLE B

RELATIONSHIPS SELECTED AS MOST IMPORTANT*

Maintained With	Maintained By						
	Children's	Family	Health	Recreation & Neigh. Centers	Public Agencies	Other	Totals
Children's	6	7	2	6	11	5	37
Family	7	5	7	17	16	3	55
Health	1	12	24	12	30	20	99
Recreation & Neighborhood Centers	4	9	2	135	33	17	200
Public Agencies	9	21	18	38	60	23	169
Civic Groups	1	9	4	103	13	18	148
Churches	0	3	0	85	5	3	96
Professional Organ.	0	19	7	57	16	16	115
Schools, Libraries	1	10	2	73	21	11	118
Interagency Organ.	10	51	18	247	36	32	394
Other	1	4	7	50	13	9	84
Totals	40	150	91	823	254	157	1515

* Data from questionnaires from 503 agency workers in 47 cities.

TABLE C

REASONS FOR IMPORTANCE OF SELECTED RELATIONSHIPS

Reasons	City Size											
	Over 500,000		250,000–500,000		100,000–250,000		50,000–100,000		Under 50,000		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Co-ordination provided	37	22.8	68	21.9	112	22.5	58	15.2	32	19.6	307	20.3
Source of income	1	.6	15	4.8	21	4.2	15	3.9	10	6.1	62	4.1
Use of facilities	2	1.2	14	4.5	26	5.2	20	5.3	5	3.1	67	4.4
Program promotion or interpretation	37	22.8	46	14.8	52	10.4	74	19.4	26	16.0	235	15.5
Volunteers trained	4	2.5	0	0.0	8	1.6	2	.5	2	1.2	16	1.1
Source of information	14	8.7	28	9.0	54	10.8	21	5.5	13	8.0	130	8.6
Valuable community service	9	5.6	20	6.5	24	4.8	27	7.1	14	8.6	94	6.2
Similar field of service (incl. referrals)	29	17.9	91	29.4	154	30.9	115	30.2	44	27.0	433	28.6
Same geographical area served	1	.6	0	0.0	2	.4	8	2.1	0	0.0	11	.7
Joint program operated	17	10.5	16	5.2	32	6.4	21	5.5	11	6.7	97	6.4
Other	11	6.8	12	3.9	14	2.8	20	5.3	6	3.7	63	4.1
Totals	162	100.0	310	100.0	499	100.0	381	100.0	163	100.0	1515	100.0

Statement of Policy and Procedure for Interagency Relationships[1]

1. The agency recognizes the importance of and the necessity for harmonious, co-operative relationships with other community interests.
2. The agency believes that it is the responsibility of staff and board members to maintain helpful relationships.
3. It will endeavor to establish and maintain relationships which will be broad in range and of different types and levels.
4. The agency will set up procedures for listing, classifying, and appraising relationships periodically.
5. It will provide, as an integral part of its job analyses and employing agreements with staff members, adequate time and budget to maintain approved relationships.

Procedure

1. A classified listing of essential community relationships will be compiled following a study of all possible desirable relationships in which each has been appraised and rated through the use of an approved list of criteria and rating value. Branch executives will be responsible for this porcedure in the area of Branch interest and will make recommendations to the general secretary.
2. A review of existing relationships will be made annually and, when possible, by the executive cabinet.
3. Recommendations for the establishment of new relationships will be made through regular staff channels to the general secretary. Such recommendations will contain an appraisal as outlined in "Item 1" above.
4. Distribution and allocation of specific responsibilities for relationships in the area of city-wide interests will be recommended by the general secretary, and in the area of Branch interests, by Branch executives with the approval of the general secretary. Selection and allocation will be guided by the following principles or factors:

---

[1] Adapted from "Community Relationships—A Statement of Policy and Procedure" developed by the Boston Young Men's Christian Association, March, 1951.

  a. Staff and board members' association, position, and other responsibilities.
  b. Staff and board members' interests, skills, and abilities.
  c. Estimated or demonstrated value and effectiveness.

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